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THE FIRST SOUTHERN CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING ACQUAINTED TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS FROM THE ELEMENTARY THROUGH COLLEGE LEVELS WITH MODERN TECHNIQUES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING. THE PROGRAM PROVIDED LECTURES, WORK-STUDY SESSIONS, DEMONSTRATION CLASSES, FILMS, AND EXHIBITS OF EQUIPMENT. THIS REPORT INCLUDES THE FOLLOWING ARTICLES--(1) "LANGUAGE TEACHING--CONCEPTS, PROBLEMS, OPPORTUNITIES," (2) "NEW CHALLENGES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES," (3) "THE ROLE OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE SUPERVISOR," (4) "LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT DRILLS," (5) "THE ELECTRONIC CLASSROOM," (6) "FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS," (7) "FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS," (8) "EVALUATION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING THROUGH TESTING," (9) "THE MLA FOREIGN LANGUAGE TESTS," AND (10) "OVERVIEW." A COPY OF THE PROGRAM, A LISTING OF MEMBERS OF THE STEERING AND ADVISORY COMMITTEES, AND DIRECTORIES OF VISITING CONSULTANTS AND EXHIBITORS COMPLETE THE REPORT. (GJ)

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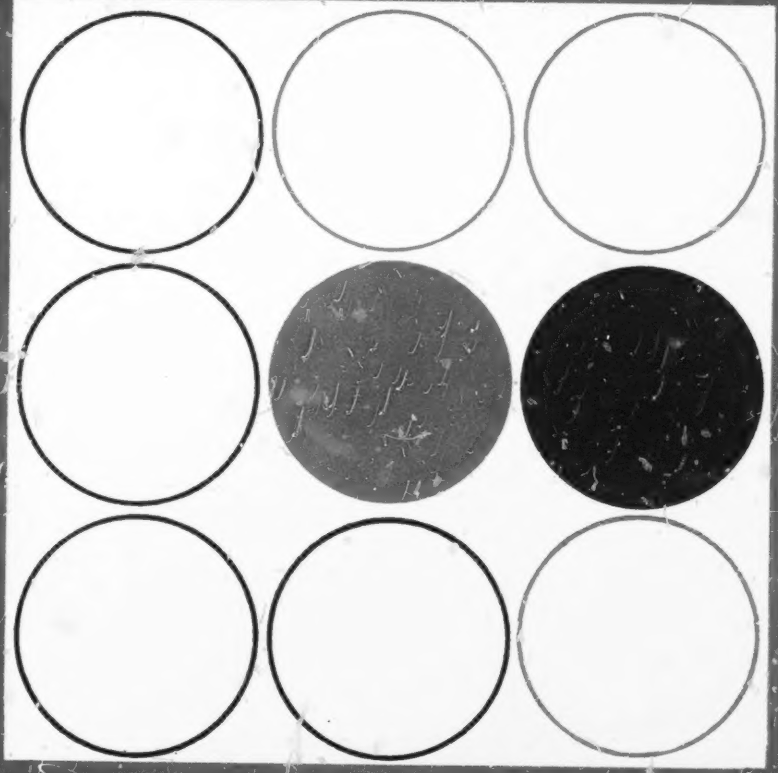

proceedings of the 1st southern conference on language teaching atlanta, february 1965

edited by .... louis chatagnier
herman bostick · oscar bonner

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DIMENSION: LANGUAGES 65

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DIMENSION:
LANGUAGES 65

proceedings of the 1st southern conference on language teaching atlanta, february 1965

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the southern conference on language teaching

origin and meaning

With the advent of modern teaching methods and techniques and of new teaching materials, it became apparent that language teachers needed assistance in appraising and utilizing effectively the almost constant flow of literature and equipment which enters their classrooms each year. The Southern Conference on Language Teaching grew out of a cooperative effort to meet the needs of all those concerned with language instruction in the South. They have problems which are common to those encountered by teachers in other sections of the nation, but they also have some which are peculiar to their locale. The Southern Conference was organized to provide assistance to these teachers in solving the numerous problems which confront them.

Nationally recognized linguists, teachers and scholars come to the Conference to share their professional knowledge and ideas with other educators of the Southeast. Classroom teachers are thus directly exposed to valuable information in a setting conducive to mutual exchange. Names that have been known only on covers of books or pages of monographs suddenly become human personalities, thoroughly aware of and very sympathetic to teaching problems.

The role of participant in the Conference is not limited to nationally known figures, but includes teachers of all levels as well, as a conference on teaching languages should involve not only those who discuss theories of language learning, but, also, in a very active role, those who *do* the actual teaching. The Conference also recognizes the importance of scholarly research and has taken definite steps to encourage and promote serious and worthwhile work in this field.

The language teacher, whether in a small community far away from academic centers or buried in the bureaucracy of a large educational institution needs and wants to know that he is a member of a vital profession, and that what he is doing in the classroom is important. The Southern Conference brings to teachers in the South proof that language teaching is a recognized and honored profession, and that it is most essential in the academic training of every student.

the editors

acknowledgements

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching would have never been conceived without the illustrative precedent established by the North East Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and the Indiana-Purdue Language Conferences.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to all the members of the Steering and Advisory committees whose whole-hearted cooperation made the conference and this publication possible. A special acknowledgement should also be made to the tireless efforts of our secretary, Herman F. Bostick, from the Georgia State Department of Education.

This conference would have been deprived of its "raison d'etre" without the invaluable contribution of the speakers and visiting consultants who gave so generously of their time to participate in the program.

My sincere appreciation is also extended to the select group of publishers and language laboratory manufacturers who accepted with enthusiasm to contribute to the success of our meeting in providing invaluable advice and helping the language teacher gain familiarity with new programs and electronic equipment.

Most of all, I wish to thank the classroom teachers and administrators who, in cheerfully sacrificing personal comfort, showed their professional commitment and dedication in order to gain new insights into the latest developments in the field of language instruction, and to convey them to their students. Their participation proved that a successful educational undertaking is always the result of a joint effort of educators, authors and their publishers and producers of instructional media equipment, whose material provides us, teachers and our students, with means to achieve our common goal: effective language teaching and learning.

louis chatagnier

atlanta, january 1966

DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '65 presents contributions acknowledging achievements and evaluating problems confronting our profession. The reports included here represent wide areas of interest that are considered essential for those interested in the process of language learning. They record where our profession stands in 1965: what has been achieved, what is in the process of being accomplished and what lies ahead.

The endeavors of linguists have spread to many places many ideas through so many media that a compulsion was felt to present in a clear, concise way a survey and a summary of the various aspects of language teaching.

This publication will serve as a reference of applied theories of language learning. It shows the need for regional organization and supervision in order to foster tested classroom practices within the framework of extended language teaching sequences. However, theories, organization, classroom practices or evaluation cannot be complete without synthesizing them into a unified entity. Dimension: languages '65 may be considered a guide to outstanding language programs based on the latest accomplishments resulting from the findings of the most recent research in applied linguistics.

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language teaching: concepts, problems, opportunities

nelson brooks
yale university

At this point we pause for a brief time to shift the focus of our thought. We turn away, momentarily, from close-ups of theoretical pro and con and exact detail of practical procedure, and instead we enlarge our perspective in an attempt to see our mission steady and see it whole.

Who are we, here assembled? And what is it that brings us together at this time and in this place? I take it that we are language teachers primarily interested in putting our students in control of a language other than their mother tongue. I take it that what brings us here is the awareness that there is about our assignment something new, something profound, and something urgent I take it that we are also aware that in what is new there is at the same time something very old, in what is profound there is also something ever-present and attainable, and in what is urgent there is a tolerance toward what is achieved only through slow growth. It is my purpose to explore with you at least some of the ways in which these attributes apply in the problems and the opportunities that present themselves in our day-by-day relationships with our students in our language classrooms.

new understanding

A mere list of what is new in our filed is impressive. We have, first of all, a new understanding of what language is and how it works. We have new objectives that state the purpose of our professional endeavor. We have new concepts concerning the proper steps to be taken in reaching our objectives. We have new materials to use in helping our students learn and new tests to measure their progress in this learning. We have new technological aids that enable us to do more things and to do them better than we could in the past, and for a greater number of students. We have new techniques of classroom procedure that can greatly increase the efficiency of both teacher and learner.

new objectives

What are our new objectives? Those of us who were language teachers between the two World Wars well remember the professional consensus that agreed upon a single objective: Reading. We can also recall both our hopes and misgivings, during the late forties and early fifties, as the single objective became a triple objective: Language Competence, Cultural Insight, and Literary Acquaintance—with Language Competence referring not only to one skill but to four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. In simplest terms, we may state that we have not set out to teach our students to do with the language they are learning—the target language—what is done with it by those who speak it natively. The moment we put our objectives in these terms, things are different, and very different. The role of English is severely diminished and greatly changed. Translation disappears almost completely. Analysis of structure is differently conceived and radically altered. And all this for the simple reason that when, say, a German speaks or reads or writes German, he doesn't use any English, he doesn't translate but stays within his language, and he doesn't analyze grammar as he goes along, he just uses it.

new concepts

What are our new concepts? During the past decade a number of quite powerful concepts concerning language learning have been spelled out and widely discussed. One of these is the concept of language as communication. These two, language and communication, are not to be equated one to one. We can easily have communication without language—consider two partners dancing together. We can also have language without communication—consider a cocktail party or a faculty tea. But having recognized the difference, we put them together in our concept of language as communication, meaning not only face-to-face communication between speakers but also writer-to-reader communication in written and printed forms, and artist-to-audience communication in the field of literature. Implied in this concept is the use of language as the native speaker uses it.

Another new concept is that of the levels of language learning. We needed this because of the many different starting points now in vogue. In this concept, a level is taken to be the block of learning that can be assimilated in a single year in the senior high school. Projected upward, a level may represent the work of a single semester in college; projected downward, it may well fill the space of two years or more. In view of circumstances as we find them, we can say that the first two levels comprise the Basic Course, the third and fourth lead to Language Competence, and the fifth and sixth to Literary Competence. This concept replaces our former subdivision into grades or years.

And, last but not least, we ourselves have a new importance in the scheme of things, an importance that brings with it both the pleasure of recognition and the burden of responsibility.

cultural concept

There is a third concept that we call the Cultural Concept, a notion we have discussed and debated, quite earnestly, for at least a decade, without making very much progress. A prime stumbling block is the word Culture itself, which has so many different meanings for different people. In our perplexity we have sometimes had recourse to the word Civilization, but again, not very successfully, for culture and civilization are not more the same than are communication and language. For what it may be worth, I suggest that we use the terms *formal* culture and *deep* culture, meaning by formal culture the products of artistic endeavor, the achievement of intellectual and artistic genius, and all the various modes of significant thought and genteel living of which a country is fully aware and justly proud, and is quite ready to talk about, to display, and even to export. By deep culture, in contrast, we refer to the thoughts and actions, and beliefs and concerns and hopes and worries, the multitudinous and infinitely subtle gradation of interpersonal relationships as expressed in deeds and words, the day-by-day details of life as it is lived—often with little awareness—at home and at school, at work and at play, in church and in celebrations, in childhood and in manhood, in country and in city—in a word, what it is like to be an Italian or a Japanese, a German or a Peruvian. If it be asked in what way the cultural concept relates to language learning, the answer is very simple. The authentic meaning of language can only be the meaning it has for those who speak the language natively. Not to learn culture is not to learn meaning, and we would be left with sounds and forms and syntactical patterns that referred to our own culture, or to the wrong thing or to nothing at all.

There is a fourth concept—which I have called the Multi-Discipline Concept—that I am going to speak of in some detail a little later.

We have a new companion for grammar analysis—it is analogy. Analogy and analysis as factors in the acquisition of language have been reassessed. Instead of relying exclusively upon analysis, as we have been doing since the days of Charlemagne in the study of all foreign languages, we now invoke the aid of analogy—which I take the liberty of defining here as "hidden sameness." Since we learn our mother tongue quite by analogy and not at all by analysis, why not try to make analogy work for us in the learning of a second language? Learning by analogy is the kernel idea of structure drill, which we find so valuable in all our courses.

But is all this so very new after all? Much that we call new, both in idea and in practice, can, with little difficulty, be found in the immediate past or even the more remote past. What is distinctly new is the broad general acceptance of ideas that formerly were rare, of practices that are now becoming common but formerly were unusual.

meaning

A next question is, what do we find that is profound in language learning, an activity that has been compared to riding a bicycle? The comparison, I fear, is either facetious or quite unwarranted. Circus animals can learn to ride a bicycle, yet very few of them can produce a conditional sentence, something that any four-year-old human child can produce, and often does. Profundity in language learning is not far to seek. We have scarcely taken the wraps off language and looked to see what it really is before we find ourselves face to face with symbolism, one of the most mysterious of all the activities of the human mind and spirit. And we find ourselves face to face with meaning, no doubt the most enigmatic puzzle in the whole human predicament.

It is neither our assignment nor our privilege now to explore these questions very deeply, but we may be entitled to pause for a moment to link this philosophical challenge with our daily classroom problems. Meaning has a number of different levels that all should clearly distinguish. A typical language act goes through phases that are both air-borne and internalized. The air-borne phase is marvelously complicated yet analyzable and understandable. The internalized phase is, for the most part, still the great unknown, as challenging a problem as human beings are ever likely to encounter. As a word lies on a page it has only the potential for meaning something. It is not until a living mind makes some use of the word that it takes on the additional significance of psychological meaning. Even more important to us is the distinction the philosophers make between meaning as it appears in a term and as it appears in a proposition. A single word has the ability to refer to one meaning area and to exclude others. When we put terms into propositions—that is, put words into utterances or sentences—their potential for meaning is greatly increased and often modified and changed. Now, we cannot communicate with each other by using isolated words; we must use utterances or sentences. This fact helps us understand how fruitless is the learning of isolated words, for unless we have the additional capacity for using them in utterances, words are literally no good to us at all.

Man symbolizes all day long, and often far into the night. Yet many of our acts are non-symbolic. To understand this difference we may compare taking a drink with reading a book. When you sit down to a glass of coca-cola, what have you before you? Well, a glass, the drink itself, perhaps a straw, and some ice. You consume the drink, your thirst is quenched, and the act has no further significance than what it is. When you sit down to read a novel, what have you before you? From the point of view of physical reality, not very much—maybe half a pound of wood pulp, a small amount of printer's ink, and, if the book is bound, a little cloth and thread and a few dabs of glue. Yet out of this unlikely assortment of trivial matter you are able to create situations and people, observe problems and perceive character; your emotions are often so stirred that you laugh or cry or both, and you end by having glimpsed, from a fresh point of view, another facet of human life. And all this is possible through the magic of symbolism. What symbolism is and what meaning is are questions that still await an answer, yet both lie at the very core of language.

Yet with all this profundity, language learning and language behavior are to be found everywhere. While doctor and saint are locked in argument about it, the language miracle is taking place in the mind and nerve and muscle tissue of the little child nearby.

our urgent task

What is urgent about our task? We might begin by citing the national need for citizens who are competent in contemporary languages, and the national resources of linguistic potential we have that will be squandered unless we turn them to account. It is clear that as a country we are on the threshold of a tremendously broadened educational program, and our field is certain to continue to be a critical one, as it was recognized to be in 1958. College entrance is a matter of extreme importance to many students and their parents, and here too language competence will continue to play a significant role. I believe there is also an important role for language learning to play in programs for students whom we call "under-achievers" or slow learners. In the high schools we are often at a loss to know what to do with and for such students, and it may well be that language programs of an appropriate kind can become a welcome addition to a curriculum they can follow with success. In all these matters we are, to a considerable extent, under pressure. Yet we are surrounded by friends who wish us well and who understand that language competence is a slow and steady growth, and will therefore give us time to produce results. But someday, pretty soon, people are going to ask: Where are all these students who can speak these languages?

the reality of language

I come now to some thoughts that I am especially eager to share with this audience. They are peculiarly the thoughts of a language teacher, but as I said at the beginning, I take it that is what we are. When language is commented upon, it is often treated in a most objective and impersonal way, as a machine-like set of signs and signals that permit us to exchange information and intent, analysis and interpretation. At other times, it is spoken of with stress upon its illustrative and intimate nature, for nothing more aptly characterizes a nation than the national tongue, nothing personalizes an individual more sharply and uniquely than the quality of the language he speaks. Or again, we speak of the evocative power of words, as they bring together what would otherwise remain unrelated, and lead our perception and imagination to discover what would, without their help, remain hidden. Since in any thorough estimate of language we are faced with a series of appearances that range from clockwork to poetry, we may look for intermediate steps or focal points at which language may be arrested and subjected to scrutiny by an attentive eye and an attentive ear. We find that its character varies surprisingly from one point to another, yet a description of language seems hardly justified unless these many manifestations are taken into account.

symbol system

Language is first of all a symbol system, a procedure in which what is perceived by the ear or the eye, though often of considerable interest, is in fact less important than what the verbal symbol, heard or written, stands for. We cannot fully understand language as a symbol system without reviewing symbol systems in general, and comparing language with other symbol systems which our minds habitually employ. Such an inquiry takes us into the field of philosophy, the first of half a dozen adjacent fields to which ours relates. The use of language by human beings is a matter of very long standing and of course it has a history. The origin of spoken language must go back well over a million years, for most of us would agree that man could hardly be called man until he had developed the ability to communicate by speech. The history of written language is much shorter, going back only five or six thousand years. There have been students of language during this time, and the field of philology is devoted to the whole history of language in its written forms. To understand what language is we must understand what it was. Whatever we may do in our language classes, both we and our students must eventually come to terms with a text, and in such matters, all the way from simple accuracy to stylistics, we need the traditions and the guidance of philology. Language can also become a vehicle for great ideas and for fine art, and literature, along with music and painting, sculpture and the dance, represent the best that man has been able to achieve. In them his urge toward expression and the refinements of esthetic preference play upon the raw materials of life that surround him and the emotions within himself. However we may feel about literary history or literary criticism or literary appreciation, language is the stuff of which literature is made. We can never fully appreciate the latter unless we are thoroughly acquainted with the warp and woof and fabric of the former.

mental process

Considered in another way, language is a mental process and a complex of skills. We are not born with language but we learn it, and memory, habit formation, learning ability, and motivation all play a part in the end result. Inquiry in these directions takes us to the field of scientific psychology, and the study of language as behavior as well as the measurement of success in language learning can confidently expect to be greatly clarified by appropriate questioning and research in this important discipline. We would like to know far more than we do about how two languages relate to each other when both are present in the same person, in what order and with what emphasis the four language skills may best be learned, and what are the subtle graduations whereby one skill, little by little, comes to supplant another. We would like to know better than we do how reference to the mother tongue may be a help in learning a second language, or, on the contary, may be a hindrance. It is our task to articulate these questions with precision and then invite the co-operation of the scientists in psychological experimentation.

code

As we listen to a man speaking, we quickly perceive that he is using a given code, one of a great many that could be used. If we examine this code very carefully, just in itself, we discover that what might at first seem random and diffuse bursts and showers of sound are in fact highly integrated and systematized. Many remarkable secrets about this system have only recently been brought to light, and in ways reminiscent of Harvey's explanation of the circulation of the blood we have come to have a far better understanding of something that has been an intimate part of our existence for a long time. The scientists who have set themselves the task of analyzing and describing language are called descriptive linguists or linguistic scientists, and this discipline has a storehouse of information to communicate to the person whose task it is to see that language is successfully learned. Perhaps the greatest contribution of the linguists to our work to date is the simple fact that language is something you say before it is something you see. This innocent-sounding statement, taken at face value, has produced all sorts of changes and improvements in what takes place in language classrooms.

When we seek to trace out what the various elements and combinations of the code in use stand for, that is, what language means, we go in the direction of still another discipline which we call cultural anthropology. This we must do because the sounds and forms and patterns of the code are fully significant only in terms of what they stand for in the minds of those who speak the language natively. It is not enough to use the forms of a new language merely to recode information about the culture in which we live. What we really wish to know is what the new code means to those whose language it is.

language and humanities

To resume for a moment what we have just been saying, note that we have referred to six different disciplines; three of them we would call the humanities—philosophy, philology, and literature. Three others we would class as sciences—psychology, descriptive linguistics, cultural anthropology. There is a contrast in basic orientation between the first group and the second, which we as language teachers are well advised to be aware of. If we were to make a list of matters that were of unquestioned importance in the humanities, we would certainly find in it such items as authority, perfection, tradition, beauty, righteousness, justice, faith, compassion, make-believe, good taste, character, didactics, non-reality, danger, evil, and soul and love and spirit.

language and sciences

On the other hand, a comparable list for the sciences would include observation, classification, description, physical reality, existent phenomena, experimentation, total accountability, public proof, measurement, efficiency, and fact. Of course these two basic attitudes are not altogether mutually exclusive, but the difference is clear. We might compare typical statements from the two areas. As a typical scientific statement we could cite this: "The intensity of light varies inversely with the square of the distance from the source." Under the heading of humanities we might say: "A soft answer turneth away wrath" or "A stitch in time saves nine." Now, a person who says such things is not speaking as a scientist. Who knows but what a stitch in time might save only eight? Or perhaps ten? Maybe the humanist should say: "A stitch in time saves plus or minus nine."

Why point out these obvious differences between the humanities and the sciences? I believe it is extremely important to do so because we who teach languages are neither in one camp nor the other, but in the nature of things must relate to both of them. In the world of today, as I scarcely need to remind you, science is in the ascendancy. The findings of science have profoundly affected our work and the influence of technology upon pedagogy is as apparent in our field as in any other, if not more so. We welcome the offerings of science for because of them we have been able to make our programs far more ambitious and effective. But there are some other voices, perhaps rather still and rather small, that people whose task it is to guide the learning of the young must listen to as well. There are some values that we find only in the fields of non-science, and these you and I cannot afford to neglect.

langue et parole

One of the earliest linguists, Ferdinand de Saussure, saw language as a stream flowing in a dual channel, one of code and the other of meaning, the two being very different but interrelated at every point. If we may change the image for a moment and think of code as a fabric, we can recognize in it no less than four strands. The four-fold interweaving of sound, order, form, and choice is a prime characteristic of human speech. You can see how ill founded is the notion that the communication practices of bees or birds or monkeys or even dolphins should be honored with the name of language. You see also how varied and complex are the skills that we must develop in our students. Analyzing language in another way, we see it divided into three separate bands, one of talk, one of gesture, and one of writing. Gesture is interesting, but for our purposes relatively unimportant. Writing, however, quite the other way.

language is speech

Now, whether we are aware of it or not, or are willing to admit it, all writing goes back to talk. And it is about this central band of talk—we now use the term audiolingual—that I wish to speak for a few moments.

I think talk needs to be defended against some of the strictures that are frequently flung in its direction. We hear it said that talk is cheap, that speech is silver while silence is golden, that one picture is worth a thousand words; and I have heard it said that it's a terrible death to be talked to death. But are these criticisms not leveled at the quality and the quantity of talk rather than at talk itself? We must distinguish between a given commodity and its overuse or misuse. Talk can indeed be gross and vulgar, it can indeed be banal and fatiguing, but it also has the remarkable capacity for sometimes attaining to the sublime. Language, like love, has many faces. It wears different guises and plays numerous roles in the daily drama of human life. Language in the form of talk is a major tie between the infant and the world around him, between the adult and his niche in the social order. It is a principal commodity of business, a weapon for military action, and the instrument of law. It is the common currency of personal interchange, both trivial and solemn; it is a pliant medium for lofty thought and exquisite art. Its presence marks the vital force that animates our companions and our friends; its absence does quite the opposite in voices that are forever stilled.

audio lingual

Those who find audiolingual somehow lacking in seriousness and dignity and effectiveness should remember that we do not possess a single word written by Confucious or Buddha or Socrates or Christ. All these molders of human thought and action deliberately chose to make their impact upon men by means of the spoken word rather that by writing. Never think that audiolingual is separable from literature. It ranges from high-frequency small talk (often a critical ingredient in the best literature) through public address from platform and pulpit, through the art form of the theatre, to the best of lyric poetry, which must be heard to be fully savored. In time it goes back to the earliest edantic hymns, which were composed and transmitted orally long before they were put down in writing. One word of caution about "audiolingual": It cannot be called a method. I have never put those two words together and I trust that you will not do so either. We can speak of audiolingual skills, of audiolingual techniques, of audiolingual learning, of audiolingual materials, and of audiolingual approach. But if "audiolingual" were a method it would lead to illiteracy, which, from our point of view, is absurb.

language and esthetics

There is still another element by no means always present in language but of great importance when found, and highly esteemed in the academic world. This is the esthetic element, a refining of both sound and meaning to the point of their being no longer merely the tools of communication but instruments of artistic expression as well. Our assignment is formal education in the academic world. Our value system has to be colored by academic values, or we have no right to accept public money or expect public recognition for our endeavors. The esthetic content of at least a part of what we present to our students and the dimension of personal refinement that language learning can bring to them must never be overlooked. The adolescent soul has a capacity for high purpose, and adventure, and poetry, to which we must make appeal, or we cheat both our students and ourselves.

Language is not a rock that can crush a toe; a cutting remark does not leave your face or fingers bleeding. Yet language is more substantial than a concept or a dream, for it can be perceived by the senses and can be recorded, studied and measured. In fact, language stands at the threshold of the real and the non-real. As such it greatly perplexes the philosophers, who are ill at ease with what cannot be categorized as one or the other. Language learning, conceived in terms of the objectives and the concepts I have described to you, has no need of being a dependent of a single field in the humanities, such as literature, nor of a single field in the sciences, such as descriptive linguistics. On the contrary, our need is to establish ourselves as a discipline in our own right, and to cooperate amicably and productively with that half-dozen disciplines that border so closely upon our own.

misconceptions

One of our problems is a lively clutch of popular misconceptions about what language is, misconceptions held almost universally by laymen and sometimes by language teachers themselves. I list four of these popular misconceptions as follows:

I A language is its vocabulary.
II Language is what is written in books.
III The unit of language communication is the word.
IV Understanding a foreign language means that you can immediately restate it in your mother tongue.

We could easily spend all our time this evening demonstrating how wrong these misconceptions are. But all we can do is to refer to them in passing. Another problem is to disentangle the role of sound and of light in language learning and language behavior—and thereby hangs the tale of audiovisual, language laboratory, and television. But to this also we can only refer. A third problem has to do with what we call the skills in language behavior. We customarily enumerate them as four, but here again, on closer inspection, we discover unexpected complexities. How different, how separable, and how marvelously intermixed the language skills are is underlined by the following facts that come to us from studies of the brain. When the brain is injured, either by accident or disease, there may be a loss of grammatical form without any loss or confusion of words, yet, contrariwise, there may be loss or confusion of words without loss of sentence structure. There may be inability to understand spoken language though hearing is intact, but not inability to read. But, the other way around, there may be ability to understand spoken language though the ability to read is lost. Some brain injuries leave the victim able to repeat words spoken for him but not to speak on his own; in other cases he cannot repeat words he has just heard, yet is able to use the same words in spontaneous speech. Since these are precisely the skills we work so diligently to develop, the facts just stated point up the great need for cooperative research by language teachers and scientists.

structures and sentences

As of now we can say that significant progress is being made in teaching our students to talk. After this comes the problem of getting them to write. In our recent work on the preparation of language tests, the MLA Cooperative FL Tests, we found that tests of writing could be separated into three areas which we called "sub-sentence," "sentence," and "paragraph" and we were able to make many satisfactory tests using these subdivisions.

As teachers I think we do not ordinarily pay sufficient attention to the sentence as such. First we have our students read, then learn vocabulary words and idiomatic expressions—in context to be sure—then we ask them questions to which they give answers orally and in writing, then we go directly to the writing of a composition before we have provided sufficient modeling and coaching in the construction of single sentences. The norm of expression in spoken speech is without doubt the utterance which may or may not be a complete sentence, depending on circumstances. The norm of written speech however is unquestionably the sentence. Compositions are made up of paragraphs and paragraphs are made up of sentences, and it is the sentence as the lowest common denominator of written language that often has not received the full attention that it merits. A sentence is much more than a sequence of words and expressions. Indeed it is much more than the answer to a question, for an answer often depends for a good part of its form or meaning upon the question that drew it forth. It is easy for us to forget that in spoken language what is said often has no need to be a complete sentence and by insisting that our students reply to questions in complete sentences we may unwittingly give them a distorted notion of what a sentence is and how it is used.

This brings to my mind a statement of Henry David Thoreau who said that a sentence should lie like a boulder on the page. It brings to mind also a statement by William Jovavovich in a recent book entitled *Now, Barrabas* in which he says: "The most important single thing in publishing is the English sentence, and the editor who cannot contemplate it again and again with a sense of wonder has not yet gained respect for the complexity of learning. One likes to recall that Gibbon said that once he got right the first sentence of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* the rest followed." These thoughts bring to mind also Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures*[1] in which the author sets forth his ideas on transformation grammar, the latest thing in structural linguistics and, it turns out, all about sentences.

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[1] CHOMSKY, NOAM AVRAM. Syntactic Structures. s'Gravenhage :Mouton & Co. 1957. (janua Linguarum, Series Minor, no. 4)

There are many things which we can have our students do with a sentence in the foreign language without relating it in any way to English. Not only can we have him repeat it aloud and write it from dictation, we can also have him copy it from the book, with certain changes. We can give him the first half of it and have him complete it. We can give him the bare bones of a sentence, just a string of lexical items, and have him reconstruct the original in its full and normal form. We can have him write a parallel sentence that has a different meaning content but the same structure. These are all exercises which the student finds interesting and rewarding. Once he begins to have a sense of what a sentence can be and do, he can go on to the making of his own, to note a description, to recount the crucial happening in an event, to state a position taken, to formulate a critical observation and the reason for it, to give precise expression to an idea or concept. Then he can proceed to the writing of paragraphs and compositions.

To all who are concerned about teaching writing to students in our language courses I recommend a book written a good many years ago, in 1915 to be exact, and published by Harvard University Press. The author was Rollo Brown and the title: *How the French Boy Learns to Write*. When our students appear to suffer from such juvenile maladies as spots before the vocabulary, grammatical rickets, and pernicious anglicisms, the fault may well be we have not provided for them adequate models and have not coached them rightly in the use of these models. A reading of Brown's *How the French Boy Learns to Write* makes it quite clear that one way to solve the writing problem is to provide excellent models, to analyze these models thoroughly, and to conduct extensive spoken explorations—we would now say audiolingual explorations—of a subject and its development before inviting the student to put pen to paper.

learning

Another fact, though not exactly a problem, is that although as a profession we are beginning to have a consensus about aims and means, we do not at all have unanimity. I am sure I am revealing no secret when I tell you that not everyone in our field is convinced that the approach to language learning that I have been describing is the right one. There is a loyal opposition, which has been frankly critical, and this is as it should be. Of late some scientific overtones have been discernible in such criticisms, and I believe these merit a rebuttal. Learning theory is an extremely active field of psychology, and many points of view should be considered. There is a monthly magazine called the *Scientific American* published for people like you and me, laymen who wish to keep abreast of what is happening on the frontiers of science. In the issue of January of this year there is an article by

M. E. Bitterman, a psychologist at Bryn Mawr College, bearing the title "The Evolution of Intelligence." It talks about measuring the intelligence of a number of different living creatures, ranging from fish to monkeys, and ends by offering the following generalizations: "As we ascend the evolutionary scale, we do not find a pattern of intellectual continuity but one of discontinuity . . . As Charles Darwin developed his theory of evolution he denied not only the physical uniqueness of man but also the intellectual uniqueness. It was Edward L. Thorndyke who set forth the theory that differences from species to species are only differences of degree and that the evolution of intelligence involves only the improvement of old processes and the development of more neural elements. Our studies of habit reversal and probability learning in the lower animals suggest that the brain structures evolved by higher animals do not serve merely to replicate old functions and modes of intellectual adjustment but to mediate new ones (a contradiction of the Thorndyke hypothesis.)" To me this is another way of saying that human intelligence, at least in some respects, differs in kind from that of any other living creature. I labor this point because the psychologists who seem most eager to help us with our problems are precisely those who, I think mistakenly, equate children to pigeons, language to nonsense, and the pairing of lexical equivalents in two languages to verbal interchange in a given tongue. Our task has to do not with the learning of the mother tongue but, in the words of Comenius, with another language that can take its place. And—even more special still—with the learning of this additional language in the somewhat artificial surroundings of formal education. We, and all those who would help us, should keep constantly in mind the unique character of what it is we are called upon to do. What may happen at mother's knee, what may happen in foreign travel, what may happen in a psychological laboratory, what may happen in business or the diplomatic corps or in military service, for all its interest and importance, is never the same as what we must cause to happen as we teach our students in classrooms of schools and colleges.

new opportunities

As for the opportunities that lie before us, I see them as essentially of two kinds: one to be found in the nature of the language program in the classroom itself and the other in cooperation and collaboration between the different echelons of the academic hierarchy. Not only how possible but how profitable such cooperation and collaboration can be has already been demonstrated on dozens and dozens of college and university campuses in the Language Institutes that have been conducted under NDEA, by college and school personnel, for teachers in elementary and secondary schools. There is every reason to hope and expect that there will continue to be beginning classes in a second language in both elementary and secondary schools.

There is also every reason to hope and expect that all students who come to college will be in possession of a recognized competence in one foreign language, enabling them to continue with cultural and literary studies in that language or to begin another language, or to do both. This implies that there will be available a sequence of not less than four senior high school years of language study or their equivalent. There is really only one direction for the very important FLES Movement to take, and that is to teach the first part of a basic course that can be complemented and completed in the junior high school. This implies, to be sure, a workable degree of professional agreement on objectives, procedures, materials, and tests.

If there were time, I would talk with you at length about what I like to call "classroom dynamics." We sometimes hear it said that audiolingual classes are boring. May I outline some suggestions for exorcising the classroom of this skulking ghost, and do so in a negative way. Here is a list of twenty-five Don'ts for the language teacher, presented not as "Confucius say" or "Thus Spake Zarathustra" but rather as suggestions of one language teacher talking with others.

twenty-five don'ts

1. Don't attempt to teach all you know.
2. Don't let students wonder why you are teaching in a certain way.—tell them.
3. Don't use the mother tongue to communicate with students during the FL class.
4. Don't permit the students to make comments and ask questions in English during the FL class.
5. Don't require the students to invent new language structures—model what is wanted.
6. Don't use English to explain structure during the FL class.
7. Don't refer all FL learning to a printed text.
8. Don't teach numbers and songs as language—they belong to other symbol systems. Teach them as math and music.
9. Don't teach single vocabulary words in lists or with pictures—teach vocabulary in context.
10. Don't use the FL to refer only to what is in sight. For the most part, language refers to what cannot be seen at all.
11. Don't spend long stretches of class time doing the same thing—vary the program. (At least 7 variations are possible in any class.)
12. Don't let students think that words mean other words. Most of the time, words mean non-words.
13. Don't encourage the interference of English by constant reference to it.

14. Don't let concern for vocabulary hinder the learning of structure.
15. Don't neglect intonation patterns when teaching pronunciation.
16. Don't ask students to translate from the target language into English.
17. Don't ask students to repeat utterances that to them are devoid of meaning.
18. Don't judge accuracy of compehension by the ability to restate in another language.
19. Don't neglect any one of the four skills.
20. Don't teach paradigms and contrastive pairs as control of structure.
21. Don't teach too much at once. Learning takes time and proceeds best in minimal steps.
22. Don't neglect the teaching of culture, both formal and deep.
23. Don't deprive the learner of at least a brief acquaintance with language of literary quality.
24. Don't attempt the appreciation of literature before the learner has finished the basic course.
25. Don't neglect to display language in actual use.

I believe that the seven variations referred to in number eleven comprise the best of all means for outwitting boredom.

To many to whom our kind of language teaching is new, one of the most appealing notions is that of the classroom as a cultural island, one in which the sounds, the structures and the idioms of the language, as well as the meaning of the code, are as authentic to the target culture as they can be. There are, of course, many non-linguistic elements of the target culture that can find their way into the classroom, all the way from numbers and songs to pictures and coins and articles of dress. But the central figure in the cultural island is the language teacher himself or herself, using the language with the students. The list of ingredients that go to make up a good teacher includes, along with a full measure of the milk of human kindness, a pinch of the missionary and a dash of the ham actor. The cultural island lends itself flexibly to the exercise of these desirable qualities.

Positive evaluation

Now, in conclusion, as we continue our way towards our new objectives, there are two questions that may be in our minds and that merit an answer, even though brief. One is: Have our efforts in the past been wholly beside the point and without value? and the other: Can we really make native speakers of the students in our schools and colleges? It should not be thought that our efforts in the past were without worth; quite the contrary. It is a noble thing to study the manner in which people who speak a foreign language express themselves and to try to appreciate, however imperfectly, the unique character of their thoughts and ways and aspirations. In the light of knowledge and experience we now have, it seems quite certain that we have given up none of the good features of our traditional language programs, but instead have preserved them and added measurably to them, certainly to the far greater satisfaction of our students.

As for making native speakers of our students, let us recognize that to use a language as it is used by a native speaker is one thing and that to become a native speaker is quite another. High hopes must be tempered with realism. When we stop to think of it, we must admit that our native language is very much a part of ourself, our personality, our inmost thought. Our mother tongue fits us like our skin, or our right hand. At best a second language learned in formal education can fit us only like a new suit of clothes. But the cloth can be of good quality, it can be tailored to fit us well, we can wear it gracefully and with general approval, and we can keep it pressed and in good condition. The second language learner thus becomes linguistically presentable and respectable. Yet the model that we imitate and strive to approach should none-the-less be language as used by the native speaker. I quote you Robert Browning: "A man's reach should exceed his grasp, or what's a Heaven for?"

new challenges in foreign languages

phillip leamon
indiana university

Before I begin my remarks on foreign language learning and teaching, may I assure my readers that I am not an "outsider." Not only have I taught in small colleges and large universities, and served as a consultant, but I have taught for several years in both small and large high schools. I have known the joy of teaching six classes daily, not including the home-room assignment. At the same time I sponsored a French Club, took tickets at the basketball game, looked after the business affairs of the Junior Class, organized a chili supper, and directed a play. Also at this same time my colleagues in the colleges and universities were wondering why I was not "keeping up" with developments in the field, why I was not doing more experimenting with new texts and methods in my classes, and why I was not contributing more frequently to the professional journals. I say these things to remind you that I do not approach my subject with the attitude "I know what it *must* be like," but, rather, "I know what it is."

What I propose to do, then, is to relate what one state university and one state are attempting to do to satisfy some of the principal needs in our profession. I will, of course, use Indiana University and the State of Indiana as my point of demarcation because it is the situation there with which I am especially familiar. I do *not* want to boast unduly of our accomplishment or beginnings (for we have much yet to do and many situations to correct) *nor* to suggest that we have found the panacea.

First of all, it seems to me, we foreign language teachers need to organize and coordinate our efforts as well as possible. If we are to have strength and balance in the whole foreign language program, if we are to produce students whose control of the skills and learnings desired is excellent, we must avoid unnecessary duplication of effort, unguided and unrelated experimentation, and the too prevalent feeling of loneliness or "what's the use" on the part of one or two teachers within a department, system, or area. Petty jealousies that exist where the teacher of one language is also counselor or "has an in" with the counselor and gets more than his "share" of the students must disappear as teachers work together toward common goals. In my own rather extensive observations, the schools with the programs most consistently strong and progressive are those in which some experienced foreign language teacher is hard at work unifying the efforts of the various teachers in a school system, *at all levels of instruction.*

the coordinator

To respond to this need, the State of Indiana has provided good leadership in the form of a State Foreign Language Supervisor (as have many other states). First it was in the person of Prof. George E. Smith, now at Indiana University as Director of the Ford Foundation-supported Indiana Language Program, about which I will say more a little later; then Prof. Clemens L. Hallman, now at the Pennsylvania State University in Foreign Language Education; and presently Miss Wahneta Mullen, former teacher of Spanish and French in an outstanding high school and foreign language methods instructor at Indiana State College at Terre Haute. These people all have given good advice to teachers and administrators, held "in service" workshops, sponsored regional conferences, and organized very helpful State Advisory Committees, among dozens of other worthwhile services. Other colleges and universities in Indiana also have given generously of time, staff, effort and financial support to good foreign language programs. Indiana University, however, has made a bold, imaginative, and, I think, unique gesture toward better organization and articulation of foreign language programs in the state. In 1959, the University appointed the writer School Coordinator for Foreign Languages. The search committee wanted someone who had taught in both high school and college, and who was enthusiastic and optimistic about serving as liaison between the foreign language departments in the University and the School of Education, and who could represent the public schools to the University and vice versa. They assigned me no teaching except occasional help in the methods courses and the direction of summer institutes and similar programs, and gave me the office staff and budget necessary to establish meaningful communication with the schools. In addition, the University has been very generous in lending its support to many new ideas, including providing specialists from the language departments to visit schools, introducing new language courses and courses taught in the foreign language in the departments, and even the teaching of such courses as Latin American History, History of Western Civilization, and Fine Arts with special sections in Spanish and French. Expansion in these courses, and in the languages used is to come if this experiment is successful. This appointment has been a real source of satisfaction to me and, I hope, the University, and has lifted morale in the foreign language departments in many of our schools. In addition, it has led to the development of two other programs which I would like to outline, in the forms of responses to needs in our field today.

A second great need in our schools, of which we are all aware, is for longer, stronger, *uninterrupted* sequences of study in the foreign languages, with special opportunities for specially gifted students, and which will attract more of our really talented students to a career in foreign languages. This need Indiana University is responding to by supporting an Honors Program in Foreign Languages for High School Students. Since it has been operating more or less experimentally for 3 years and not much accurate information about it has been widely distributed, let me take a few minutes to outline its essential points. You may find its concept quite exciting.

the honor program

This Honors Program for High School Students conducts intensive language learning sessions in France, Germany, and Mexico for selected advanced students. Conceived, established and directed for the first 3 years by David C. Munford, it has been turned over to me this last year, since Mr. Munford's health has caused him to leave the University. The basic operating principles will continue to be essentially the same. Eligible students must come from *cooperating high schools,* a term which I shall explain later. All students selected must be of junior class standing and at least in their third year of study of the foreign language at the time of applying, and must pledge themselves to continue the study of that language during the next school year.

In each foreign country intensive instruction and drill in the foreign language is integrated into a carefully arranged personal experience within the culture. Practical mastery of the foreign language by each student is the primary working goal; all other purposes often associated with foreign study programs are secondary. When underlining the importance of the linguistic impact upon the student, and in turn upon the schools and teachers, I am not unaware of the importance of other values. In fact, the by-products of values obtained from a successful inter-cultural experience centering upon the exclusive use of the foreign language may well be greater than the values of learning thoroughly a foreign language. However, the latter is the key to the former. Thus far, all students have returned home able to understand and to speak the foreign language. Many became fluent. A few acquired near-native skills.

cooperating school

We work with schools already making extra efforts and intending to make use of the Honors Program. The cooperating school must be offering at least 3 years of continuous instruction in French, German, or Spanish, with at least the fourth year of instruction to be offered *independently* of their three years' work the following year.

It is also important that cooperating schools provide returning alumni of the Program with special teaching and learning opportunities designed *at least* to sustain and to advance (if possible) the speaking and understanding skills acquired in foreign study.

participating student

The Program is designed for the student of junior class standing, in at least his third year of study of French, German, or Spanish, who is eager to become proficient in the use of the language *as it is spoken,* and who knows he must work hard to reach this goal. To such a student we offer the chance to compete for a place in a program designed specifically to bring him to this goal, at a price he can afford. Up to thirty students are selected in each of the three languages, through the most careful selection process that we can design, including thorough appraisals of the student by himself, his school, his parents and teachers, and a personal interview of some 30 minutes. All students so investigated have first been screened by listening comprehension tests to assure minimal oral competency. I emphasize this process because we feel that careful selection is necessary to the success of any bona fide foreign study program, and many in the profession are frankly concerned about the great numbers of students now going abroad for whom the primary criterion for selection is their ability to pay. Without careful selection, the study program abroad suffers and the group tends to become tourists rather than students. As Leonard Brisley has recently written in a report prepared for the 1965 Northeast Conference, "All foreign travel is not necessarily broadening. Water skiing in Europe with other Americans is little different, if any, from water skiing in the United States with other Americans."

study abroad

In the foreign study towns the summer classes continue for approximately nine weeks. Twenty-five to thirty hours of class instruction in the language are given each week under the direction of an American high school teacher, assisted by native instructors. Each Honors Student lives with a native family, as a member of the family and subject to its normal rules and regulations. In general, no English is spoken with anyone at any time. Travel in the foreign country is limited to a few field trips in the region, related to the learning situation. A program of lectures and cultural events rounds out the instruction. Senior staff members supervise the Program in all three countries and are on virtually 24-hour call.

financial assistance

Perhaps the really unique feature of this Program, which allows us to be so selective and to call it an Honors Program, is the possibility for financial assistance, where necessary. The price is $650 in Mexico and $950 in France and Germany. This includes transportation, instruction, board and room, and local field trips, from Bloomington to Bloomington. Original selection is based on academic and personal merit only; the applicant's financial situation is unknown to the selection committee. Once the student is selected, his parents, if unable to pay the full costs, may ask for help by filing a confidential request. This statement, submitted separately, is analyzed, and if help appears to be justified, a grant-in-aid is made. Every student, however, pays at least $100. Actual cost is considerably more than the stated prices, so the University does subsidize every student to some extent. The Carnegie Corporation and local school foundations have provided needed support money to date. A plan is now being organized whereby local school districts will support students from their schools, where necessary, and in this way the Program will become self-supporting.

the first three years

Two hundred twenty-seven Honors Students from approximately fifty high schools were taught in foreign countries in the Program during the summers of 1962, 1963, and 1964 and thus can testify to the success of this type of learning program. In addition to their oral skills, Honors Students acquired a profound respect for foreign culture and an infectious enthusiasm for language learning. They report that to live and speak fully within the foreign language is one of their life's most rewarding accomplishments.

A third great need in our profession, it seems to me, is for an all-out attack on the great variety of weaknesses we all see around us—a *comprehensive action* program rather than small, isolated attempts. Such a plan requires the efforts of a whole state—the State Superintendent's Office, and in particular, the Foreign Language Consultant, the interested colleges and universities in the state, and all the schools which are or which want to be first class. Once again, may I cite, as an example, what we are trying to do in Indiana. Having seen and discussed this need for several years, and having established the position of Foreign Language Coordinator and the Honors Program already discussed, Indiana University sought support from the Ford Foundation for a concentrated attack on the various problems within a fairly typical state. In 1962 we were given a grant of $650,000 to support the first five years of a ten-year plan, designed to arrive at the following basic goal:

> By 1972, modern foreign language instruction, with modern methods and objectives in every public high school in Indiana with an increasing number of schools offering four years or more of such instruction, and with every college-bound girl or boy counseled to study a foreign language, ancient or modern, for as long as possible.

Now this sounds like a relatively uncomplicated goal, but it requires the kind of all-out attack on a myriad of fronts, which I have just suggested. In my opinion, the effort that Prof. George E. Smith, Director of the Indiana Language Program, has been making and is making is most impressive. As I enumerate a checklist of Indiana Language Program activities current and recent, may I ask you to remember that, while we are spending considerable money on the various facets of this plan, no single activity costs a fortune, and that capable enthusiastic leadership is more important in foreign languages today than money.

the indiana language program

Here, then, is a checklist of Indiana Language Program activities:

1. 100 Indiana FL teachers (German, French, Spanish) re-trained in intensive 4-week institutes (short program especially tailored, with some advantages over NDEA institutes).
2. 47 new, fully certified teachers of high school Spanish brought into the profession by the Cuban Refugee Training Project—in one year (Indiana State College).
3. 40 young people started on career training in FLs, including Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Hebrew, and Korean, through our scholarship program.
4. More than 100 additional Indiana FL teachers given in-service training in short and intensive workshops, in collaboration with the State Department of Public Instruction.
5. Approximately 30 college and university teachers from 30 institutes from all over the United States given intensive modern training in the *teaching of FL at the college level*, in collaboration with the Linguistic Institute (8 weeks).
6. 22 staff members from about 20 smaller colleges attended a seminar in modern techniques and methods of teacher preparation in the FL field, in cooperation with DePauw University (4 weeks).
7. A series of High School-College Conferences to aid in articulation and coordination of language programs.
8. Formation of a State Advisory Committee to deal with foreign language matters, and to act as a liaison between the schools and the Department of Public Instruction.

9. 30 Indiana high school FL teachers sent abroad for summer study in Europe and Latin America.

10. General Commission on Education issued statement that all commissioned high schools in Indiana must teach FL by 1965 as a result of ILP work with State Department of Education.

11. Printing and distribution of pamphlets, leaflets, etc. concerning information of importance to all State FL teachers.

12. Support of State FL newsletter—now official organ of ILP.

13. Developmental support of research projects in language instruction (development of new Russian teaching materials, phoneme discrimination research, etc.).

14. Survey and statistical analysis of foreign language teachers in Indiana (IBM data file established).

15. Cooperative publication and distribution of FL Teachers Directory (with State Department of Public Instruction).

16. Public information campaign through news media. (New interest and more favorable attitude of public toward FL may, in part, be the result of ILP activity.)

17. Introduction of Chinese at the high school level in Indiana (new materials developed).

18. Arabic encouraged at high school level.

19. Developmental support of experimental (hopefully, a demonstration course) French, long sequence, program in grades 4–12.

20. Program of inter-institutional cooperation with other colleges and universities in Indiana. (These include such things as the Cuban project, the college seminar, teacher training programs, etc.)

21. National conference on modern language learning in cooperation with Purdue University (attendance over 400).

22. Cooperative work with the Department of Foreign Languages of the N.E.A. (Over 150 letters written to people throughout the U.S. concerning FL questions.)

23. Support of State FLES Committee. Preparation of a guide for FLES in Indiana was undertaken by a state committee partially financed by the ILP. The director of ILP was a co-author of the guide.

24. In-service Teacher Training Program for Indianapolis Public Schools, in cooperation with Purdue University and Indianapolis School System.

25. Communication and Services
(Consultation and personal contact service for and with individuals, school systems, FL organizations (state and national), colleges state education commissions, State Department of Public Instruction, U. S. Office of Education Modern Language Association, Title VI Institute Program, Peace Corps, service clubs, etc.).

This rather comprehensive list should suggest both the principal needs that we see and what we are trying to do about them. Again, many of these things do not involve great sums of money nor insurmountable obstacles.

need for action

You will note that I have not labored the points that: we need to study foreign languages; we need to emphasize understanding and speaking the languages as well as reading and writing it; nor that FLES programs should fit smoothly into junior high courses, which should move uninterruptedly into high school programs, which in turn should prepare students for appropriately conceived advanced courses in the college or university. I believe that we all realize these things and have perhaps heard them too often. *What we need is more action!* All of us can at least strive to "up-grade" our qualifications in terms of the MLA's Teacher Proficiency Standards. Too many of us are minimal or sub-minimal in one or more of the seven categories. Here are some concrete steps that we can take:

- make a greater effort to prepare our materials well before we teach them
- make greater use of the FL in the classroom—it's easier than you think
- do more intensive summer study—here and abroad
- do more visiting and discussing, exchanging of classes with colleagues
- do more work through the year with records, tapes, films, natives in the community, newspapers, magazines, etc.
- make a real effort to attend professional meetings, to keep up with professional journals—to record our ideas and experiences in these journals

And now, to the heart of the problem:

Teaching is certainly among the most rewarding endeavors there are—it *can be* infinitely so. We *must* convince more of our best young people of this. Each of us must work constantly at the task. Here is what I would ask you to do. Each of you, for each of the next 5 years, select 4 of your best students and persuade them to consider teaching a foreign language as a profession. Then follow all these young people through high school and college with frequent fellowship, advice, and encouragement. I think you won't be disappointed with the results of these efforts. Within teaching, the most rewarding fields are those which help the student to understand himself, his relationship to his fellows, and to his Creator. Language and literature stand both at the base and at the pinnacle of the pyramid of human experience.

Language teachers, the *sina quo non* of this whole process, have a major responsibility for interpreting this pyramid to the world.

the role of the foreign language supervisor

clemens l. hallmann
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The role of supervision has changed from the traditional concept of inspection and imposition to that of a cooperative enterprise in which all concerned work together toward the improvement of education. Today the major task of supervision is to stimulate and to create the proper environment necessary to help teachers grow and, through teachers, to improve the instructional program. The primary function of supervision is *leadership*; specifically to encourage, to stimulate, and to assist. Modern supervision involves a study of the entire teaching-learning process. Effective supervision does not exist in isolation; it involves all aspects of education.

qualifications

A good supervisor must have an excellent background in his own field plus be skillful in leadership, in managing human relations, and in guiding group process. He attempts to bring out the best in those with whom he is working.

A good *foreign language* supervisor should:

A. Have been a successful elementary or secondary-school teacher of at least one modern foreign language (although being an excellent classroom teacher does not automatically insure good supervision.)

B. Be "competent" in more than one foreign language.

C. Be knowledgeable in psychology of learning, applied linguistics, and in the value and use of technological aids.

D. Possess a broad knowledge of teaching procedures, instructional material, and equipment.

E. Be able to demonstrate modern teaching procedures and aids.

F. Have a sound philosophy of education and be interested in the entire educational world.

G. Be able to inspire others to assume responsibility.

H. Be a good public relations agent.

I. Possess extensive knowledge and understanding of people.

J. Possess training and understanding of non-language fields in education (such as tests and measurements, audio-visual aids, etc.).

K. Be able to help teachers improve their methods and techniques as well as aid them in evaluating their teaching competency.

—and—

Be a good listener,
be fair,
sincere,
humble,
sympathetic,
and have respect for individuals.

Supervisors with the above qualifications are not easily found. However, I feel such a background is necessary, for *a supervisor is judged by the service he renders and not by the position he holds.* He cannot render good service with a weak background.

the role of the supervisor

Naturally, the role and amount of time devoted to any particular activity by a supervisor will vary from state to state. This is due to the difference in structure and organization of each educational agency. The following, however, should give an idea of his time distribution:

ACTIVITIES—	*TIME DISTRIBUTION*
A. Working with teachers and administrators	40% of total
B. Conducting and attending conferences and workshops	15%
C. Administration	15%
D. Research	10%
E. Working with related agencies	10%
F. Demonstration teaching	5%
G. Other*	5%
Total	100%

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*Other activities include speaking at P.T.A.'s, publicity, evaluation, and clerical work.

When broken down into details the foreign language supervisor does the following:

assistance

A. Assists *local* teachers and administrators with their instructional activities:

1. Evaluates existing foreign language programs, and recommends ways for their strengthening and improvement.
2. Encourages professional growth through in-service programs and other media.
3. Encourages and assists in the formulation of functional, realistic statements of philosophy, purposes, and objectives of foreign language education (e.g., curriculum guides).
4. Aids in the selection and procurement of instructional materials and equipment based on local needs.
5. Aids in the preparation of proposals for financial assistance for equipment and instructional materials (NDEA, ESEA, etc.).

coordination

B. Coordinates the *statewide* instructional effort into a well-balanced, dynamic program.

1. Promotes and organizes conferences; regional, county, and city workshops for the purpose of acquainting teachers with new materials, techniques, and aids at all levels of instruction.
2. Works closely with teacher-preparing institutions concerning pre-service and in-service programs.
3. Works with various state and regional foreign language associations.
4. Develops minimum standards for equipment and materials.
5. Develops guidelines for the teaching of the various foreign languages (Refer III, A, 4).
6. Encourages teacher participating in professional associations and activities.
7. Encourages and rewards leadership at the local level.
8. Uses bulletins or newsletters to keep teachers informed of local, state, and national activities affecting foreign language education.
9. Serves as a clearing house for matters pertaining to the field of foreign languages (such as fellowships, institutes, and analysis and interpretation of research).
10. Informs school administrators, civic groups, and laymen of the role of foreign language education and the need for their understanding and support.

liaison

C. Serves in a liaison capacity with:

1. Related departments of education divisions (such as Audio-Visual, Teacher Certification, Curriculum, Library, Textbook, and others).

2. State organizations such as the state teachers association, state P.T.A., state guidance association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and various state associations composed of principals, supervisors, and superintendents.
3. National agencies such as the Department of Foreign Languages of the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association, the U. S. Office of Education, and the National Council of State Supervisors of Foreign Languages.

The supervisor's road is not always a smooth one. He is often faced with lack of cooperation and understanding on the part of college professors, elementary and secondary-school teachers, state department of education personnel, local administrators, and parents (who often say: "They didn't do it that way when I was in school!") All these obstacles, however, can be overcome if you do your share in promoting better foreign language education. Supervisors need and want your help. They can also help you; call on them.

language reinforcement drills

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Today we are still in wide disagreement as to the role of language reinforcement drills. We are still heavily influenced by two well-known forerunners to present-day methodology: (1) the English for Foreigners Program of the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan and (2) the Army Special Training Program (ASTP). The University of Michigan program relied heavily on drills at the points of interefernce between the native language and the target language, while ASTP was heavily oriented towards situation. These two influences are readily apparent in such materials as the ALM, the Holt series, and others, where an attempt has been made at reconciliation between the two. They are in essence eclectic, attempting to use the best of both approaches. In the field of college materials, the same attempt has been made, but a trend towards the Michigan or structural approach seems to be developing.

No one in his right mind is going to argue with the widely held theory that language is best learned in a natural situation; nor, that language outside of situation is really language. Many of us, however, will argue that learning a second language is not natural, and most important, that in many instances in today's school curriculum, the time is not allocated for the learning of a foreign language in a natural way. Thus, as learning time decreases, the opportunity for learning the natural way also decreases, and the necessity for systematic drill increases.

structural drills

There seems to be a general attitude that drills are artificial, and this is one of the main stumbling blocks to their general acceptance. One cannot deny that they are not natural, but neither is the memorization of pre-written dialogues, which may have nothing to do whatsoever with what students may wish to express at the very time they are uttering the lines of the dialogues. At best, foreign language situations are seldom as natural as a live stage presentation, and the theater certainly is not a natural situation.

Lately it has become quite difficult to skim through any issue of our best professional journals without encountering at least one article on the subject of pattern drills. Most of these articles, it seems, praises the idea of the pattern drills in a very general way, and then, proceeds in a detailed manner to condemn the wide use of these drills for reasons which are highly subjective. Today, it seems fashionable to attack both the dialogues and the pattern drills.

Ever since language has been taught formally, some sort of practice exercises have been used by teachers. In the grammar-translation method, when syntactical analysis played an extremely important part in the learning process, the translation and fill-in-the-blank exercises were standard; as well as the question-answer type of exercises which were used in textbooks placing a greater emphasis on language usage. The solution to the problems found in these exercises depended primarily on reasoning rather than on automatic recall. The student had the time to "figure out" the word needed in a blank, often by the process of elimination.

Today, if we are teaching language primarily for the purpose of communication, specially oral communication, it becomes obvious that these exercises are totally inadequate. If we accept the thesis that language is a set of speech habits, then the exercises we use in teaching must be designed to develop reflexive speech habits.

Language drills generally fall into two distinct categories: the learning drill and the testing drill. The purpose of the first is to develop and set a speech habit; the second is to verify whether or not this goal has been accomplished.

learning drills

A learning drill has a specific phonemic or syntactic goal. For example, a learning drill may be designed to make the French "u" automatic; to render a negative structure habitual; to fix a certain form or set of forms, such as the spoken forms of the present indicative of the verb *to have,* into the student's speech habit. The learning drill usually is preceded by modeling and repetition phases. The drill itself usually consists in the manipulation of a stimulus or stimuli and proceeds according to the Skinnerian principles of analogy and minimal steps. Transformation, which sometimes takes on the form of substitution, is usually the underlying linguistic principle.

These learning drills, so basic in design, so simple to learn, often become intolerable nightmares to both students and teachers. Among the greatest objection is that they are dull and boring. It is true that the student with the greatest ability to analyze and generalize will rapidly understand the principle involved, and once having understood this principle, will be bored and may even refuse to participate in the remaining frames of the drill. Language teachers, whose entire training and natural leaning have been towards literature, and other intellectual pursuits, are often prone to agree and sympathize with such student attitudes and thus aggravate the problem.

This objection arises primarily from the fact that neither teacher nor student understands or is willing to accept the difference between understanding and performance. A football player usually understands a play when it is being diagrammed for him by his coach. This, however, is only the first step. Before he is allowed to try this play in a real game, he is made to practice it until it becomes second nature to him. Furthermore, he is aware of why he must learn to perform this action and what the results will be. In language learning, both the teacher and the more mature student must be aware of the goal of the drill and the importance of excellent performance. It has been my personal experience that many students who claimed they were too bored to do a drill more than once because they already knew it, were totally unable to perform adequately on that particular drill when properly tested. No standard of performance seemed to have been set or adhered to by their teachers, and they seemed to be unaware of the goal of the exercise in question.

Boredom can be relieved by a variation of the pattern. If, for example, you wish to drill on the five French spoken forms of the verb *to have,* the simplest way would be to establish a key sentence for each form with eight steady variants. If you wish to avoid monotony, you would probably use the variant device twice, use a pattern question-answer in the affirmative once, question-answer in the negative once, and a directed response once. The variation of patterns has the double advantage of relieving boredom and showing the student the use of the verb forms in different patterns; thus, we hope, facilitating the problem of re-entry.

testing drills

The testing drill varies from the learning drill mainly in one respect. In the learning drill the principle of total analogy applies. The student should be able to do frame *two* by analogy to the confirmation of frame *one,* and continue this process until the end of the sequence. In the test drill the student must supply, by immediate recall, by habit if you wish, the correct answer. An example of a testing drill is the well-known person-number substitution exercises so common in many modern teaching materials. Once again, this simple and sequentially logical device seems to fail in an alarming proportion of cases. This failure in turn leads to the general and superficial condemnation of the pattern drill, prevalent in the profession today. Testing drills are usually much too short in relation to the length of the learning drills. In structural materials, it is not uncommon to find learning drills as long as 40 frames. The testing drill or test phase is often only 5 to 10 frames in length. The brevity of the testing drill often results in student memorization of these frames, rather than recall, and does not give adequate practice beyond the analogy phase.

If the testing drill is to succeed, that is to say, if we expect the students to answer correctly to all of the items, certain principles should be followed. First of all, the students should be aware of the nature of the exercise. They should realize how it differs from the learning drill. Secondly, they should be given a standard of performance, both as to correctness and speed of the individual utterances. Thirdly, testing drills should be at least half as long as the learning drills they accompany, and students should be discouraged from attempting them until they can perform adequately on the learning phase.

motivation

Another factor contributing to the problems in the use of pattern drills is the lack of preparation given students prior to the use of drills. Students are expected to give an answer to a stimulus and compare this answer to the correct answer or confirmation; thus completing the Skinnerian cycle of Stimulus-Response-Correction. According to this theory, the immediate reinforcement is the reward the student receives when he knows, at once, that his answer was correct. In theory, this cycle is similar to the pigeon hearing or seeing a stimulus, pecking or not pecking at the right disc, and receiving or not receiving a grain of corn. In practice, however, the situation is quite different. Most important one can justly suppose that a grain of corn is much more important and rewarding to a hungry pigeon than the satisfaction of a correct answer to an unconditioned student. Again, the pigeon is not called upon to pass judgment on the validity of his reaction. He either receives the grain of corn or not. In the case of the student, he must compare his answer to the confirmation, and then make a value judgment as to whether his answer is correct or incorrect. Next, the pigeon is alone in the experimental cage with a restricted environment, while the student, unless properly conditioned, may be subject to many disturbing influences in his environment. From these statements one sees clearly that the student must be conditioned if this type of exercise is to be truly effective.

First and foremost, the student must be given the power to discriminate and to judge whether or not his answer is correct when compared to the confirmation. This aspect of training is often neglected and may result in the failure of pattern exercises to reach their intended goals. Students must be trained:

(1) in the discrimination of sounds through minimal pairs;

(2) to the production of sounds through pattern drills designed for this specific purpose;

(3) to the production of longer utterances.

A good example of materials for this type of training is Valdman, Salazar, and Charbonneaux's *A Drillbook of French Pronunciation* with its accompanying workbook and tapes. In too many instances such progressive and systematic training in pronunciation is lacking from our most popular teaching materials.

Secondly, the student must be conditioned through a general and often repeated orientation as to the desirability of giving the correct answer. He must feel rewarded, he must care whether his answer is correct or not. This can be done in part through the use of check sheets, where the student makes a mark whenever he is correct, and through a sound testing program.

Last, but not least, he must be conditioned to concentrate on what he is doing and to reject the rest of his environment. The laboratory headphones and booth can be of help in the solution to the environmental problems.

three basic principles

From the general knowledge we have of the purpose and nature of pattern drills, we may deduce three basic principles:

First, that the less time we have in which to teach, the more heavily we must rely upon them for the systematic learning of the basic structures and forms of the target language.

Second, that the student must be carefully oriented and conditioned if maximum results are to be obtained.

Third, that it can be most effective where the student can work at his own pace.

For these reasons, it would seem that the most important courses for the heavy use of language drills are the two- to three-year high school sequences and the college level course where pattern drill should be done outside of class time, in a laboratory, as preparation for the next class. This should be followed by a short oral quiz in class to see that the drills have been mastered. The quiz in turn should be followed by the use of the patterns and forms in semi-natural situations in class. This does not mean, however, that pattern drills cannot be done in class. Many drills, in fact, are better suited to the classroom than to the laboratory. Such drills as "Tell me that you are sick," "Tell me you are rich," and many others, ellicit quick natural responses from the students. Other drills may also be used as class games, pitting one part of the class against another.

Present-day high school materials, being heavily oriented towards situation, have a tendency to lack a sufficient amount of frames on any given pattern or form to set a habit. It is true that, given a six-year sequence, other opportunities for the practice of a given pattern or form will undoubtedly recur. It is in these instances, however, where one is not sure of the length of sequence or progressive continuity of materials that one should supplement these materials with further drills or adopt materials which are more structurally oriented, hence more oriented to systematic drills.

In conclusion, many of the complaints voiced today about the heavy roll of drill in language learning are due to the fact that neither teachers nor students truly understand their function, that drilling requires a great deal of effort on the part of both students and teachers, a rather unpopular factor, and that many of today's materials lack the phonological materials which must precede successful drilling. Any materials heavily oriented towards situation tends to relegate the systematic comparison of the native and target language to a secondary role. Since drilling depends primarily for its source material on the points of interference between the two languages, the use of pattern drill will increase or decrease in value depending on the original orientation of the course, on whether it is situation oriented or structurally oriented.

the electronic classroom

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After 5 years of NDEA, I am sure that many of you will agree that there is no longer as much need to remain in a tentative or transitional situation in regards to recommendations about the "new " methods, materials, and media —we can be quite bold and sure about many principles which have been found successful. We can now state quite unequivocally that secondary schools should be well-equipped with electronic classrooms, language labs, and tape recorders which are basic and integral parts of a FL program which in turn is a basic and integral part of a curriculum of general education.

The term "language laboratory" includes the essentially synonymous term "electronic classroom." The difference between the two is administrative rather than electronic or pedagogical. The "laboratory" was originally thought of as a room apart from the classroom, into which students were scheduled during a portion of the class period or in addition to the regular class period. The "electronic classroom" is a "laboratory" installed in the modern foreign language classroom itself. It makes possible some machine-guided practice during every class period without having to move the students to another room. "Electronic classroom" installations are usually simpler and more economical than "laboratories," thus making it possible to equip as many as 4 to 6 classrooms for the price of one completely equipped laboratory and to serve correspondingly more students. The "electronic classroom" is usually an audio-active system of interconnected headphones and microphones with emphasis on "classroom" activities.

The number of language laboratories in the secondary schools has grown dramatically over the past years—from a few dozen to almost 10,000, which are of many types and sizes.

How effective has this innovation been? There is still some evidence, despite the tremendous improvements schools have recently made in the teaching of modern foreign languages with the aid of the language laboratory, that in some quarters the laboratory is being misused and its function misunderstood. But this is not surprising: every new teaching aid goes through a period when some users persist in grasping it as the final solution to their teaching problems and in trying to use it for purposes for which it was never intended and in ways for which it is unsuited. Every new teaching tool undergoes a probationary period in which educators experiment with it to discover its potentialities, to define the objectives it can help them to achieve, and to find the most productive methods of using it. For most schools the language laboratory is still in this early period: we have barely scratched the surface of its potentiality. Actually, the language laboratory is neutral, for it can amplify inferior as well as superior instruction.

Like any tool or instrument, the language laboratory is most useful in the hands of a craftsman who knows how to use it skillfully. As every good teacher of a modern foreign language knows, the effective use of the language laboratory is a composite of the effectiveness of at least five elements: (1) The teacher, (2) the teaching materials, (3) the testing and grading programs, (4) the student practice sessions, and (5) the equipment. Each of these elements must meet certain criteria if the language laboratory is to produce the results expected of it.

teacher

The teacher must be interested in getting the most out of the equipment and materials; and he must have some skill in the effective use of these aids in helping students develop the skills of listening and speaking with comprehension.

A good teacher can make up for deficiencies in equipment and materials, just as an uninterested and unskilled teacher can negate whatever value students might obtain from even the finest of equipment and materials. But teachers today are caught between the pressures of a transitional period; and however skillful and dedicated they may be, in practice they lag behind the recent developments in methodological theory and instructional technology. This is why good in-service preparation of the teacher is an indispensable part of any school's plans for a language laboratory. You can't expect to teach well with a language laboratory if you can't teach well without it.

But the teacher's qualifications cannot be considered in isolation from the circumstances around him. Careful planning by administrators and teachers together is an essential part of the introduction of language laboratory facilities into any school program. In the planning, the specific language program should surely have as much weight as administrative and budgetary considerations. In other words, the idea behind the language laboratory—the idea of substance—is more important by far than the facilities themselves, which are *form* only. In its broadest sense, the language laboratory concept means regular and frequent use of recorded materials specially prepared as an integral part of a program in which audio-lingual instruction forms the basis for the progressive and continuous development of all the language skills.

Close cooperation and understanding between administrative and teaching staffs are essential not only in the planning for language laboratories but also in the use of them. Administrative decisions can easily mean the difference between an effective and an ineffective program, especially when such decisions preempt pedagogical decisions and ignore the specific needs of teachers and students. Therefore, the readiness of the school and the teachers is a prime factor in the successful use of any kind of language laboratory facilities. If you think a Wollensak can do everything you can do—it ought to replace you.

teaching material

The teaching materials designed to develop the listening and speaking skills efficiently which also integrate class and laboratory work must be used. The challenge for the teacher is in choosing what is productive in learning and rejecting what is not. I am still appalled by the presence of much of the old, ineffective materials being used in schools today. Put them on tape (or video tape) and they're still old and ineffective. What's more, they give the Language Laboratory a bad name. Actually teachers now have a choice of several excellent series of materials available that were designed for class and laboratory use. Strangely enough, some foreign language teachers who are teaching their native language believe that the laboratory is useful only for teachers who are not fluent; consequently some fine teachers have resisted using a language laboratory. They seem to forget that the laboratory is primarily for the student, not for the teacher. The student needs it to intensify and individualize his practice of the spoken language as it has been modeled for him by a variety of native speakers—experience which no single teacher, no matter how proficient, can give him. By letting other voices take over the presentation of practice material, the teacher actually gains time for individualized creative teaching. The arithmetic of simultaneous, individualized responses is overwhelming when compared to single responses. The conventional classroom can support only *one* oral communication at a time—one individual at a time. Even choral drill is not individualized.

tests

The testing and grading program must give due weight to achievement in listening and speaking. The use of the new MLA-ETS cooperative tests should help solve many of the problems that result from use of traditional tests, which place at a disadvantage those students who have learned a language primarily through listening and speaking.

practice sessions

The practice sessions must be frequent enough and long enough to enable students to develop the skills of listening and speaking.

The successful language laboratory program provides the student with adequate practice sessions for developing his skills. Schools are gradually realizing the importance of regular and frequent practice and are adjusting their programs accordingly; and many schools, to minimize the problems of scheduling practice periods, have installed simplified language laboratory equipment in each foreign-language classroom, so that practice sessions can be held at any time during any class period.

equipment

The equipment must be good enough and flexible enough to permit efficient operation on a regular basis. Students practice individually with audio equipment but the teacher must continue to relate to the student's performance while letting the tape carry on the presentation function. Tape does become impersonal, and even ugly, when the teacher allows it to take over completely. All machines require some human control at some stage and are never more intelligent than their master. The need for student practice and for the human verification of response can both be provided in electronic classrooms where the teacher provides balanced variety in activities. Language laboratory equipment was never intended to provide answers to all classroom problems and unrealistic claims have been harmful and in some cases have caused a kind of language laboratory backlash in attitudes. Boredom is always latent in drill sessions and may set in at any time unless the teacher always is on guard. Junior high school teachers quickly learn that teaching with tape does not mean that every minute will be filled with purposeful activity, for a one minute void used to rewind a tape or adjust equipment may break the spell and set up distractions for these sensitive youngsters so full of energy. We can compare our own impatience with audio situations where every second seems like an eternity,—such as waiting a whole minute for someone to come to the telephone. Language laboratory equipment which is not constantly serviced and maintained in good condition is sometimes worse than no equipment, for it disrupts and deteriorates a potentially good learning situation and may lead to distracting behavior. I would be one of the first to say that inefficient use of language laboratory equipment is worse than a good classroom situation with no equipment at all.

The more we rely on recorded audio models for language learning, the more accurate the sound must be. The "state-of-the-art" in audio quality is improving so that there is now no valid reason for schools to contend with mediocre quality of sound. The industry is willing to help, but it needs leadership—and sometimes a hard nudge—from schools, universities, and governmental and professional groups. At the Defense Language Institute, we have been able to obtain reasonably priced equipment with audio quality tested to meet our specifications based on those written by Alfred S. Hayes in his *Technical Guide for Language Laboratory Facilities* for the Electronic Industries Association and for the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. These recommended specifications should be used as an absolute minimum by all educational institutions. Their teachers and students deserve this minimum protection at the very least.

programs and practices

Evidence that language laboratories and the audiolingual approach have not yet had an opportunity to prove themselves is presented in a report by Joseph Axelrod and Donald N. Bigelow, who with others in the fall of 1960 visited 46 university language and area centers (these centers are highly specialized programs for teaching the "neglected" languages to persons who will be using these languages—college professors, for example, and representatives of government and industry). A similar report on 50 of these NDEA centers in 1964 shows that lack of effective use of language laboratories is still prevalent.

Many of the centers have changed their programs and practices since the first ratings were made, but the status of the programs at that time is sympomatic of the transition period through which all foreign language programs now are passing.

Both the Foreign Service Institute of the Department of State and the Defense Language Institute, like many colleges and universities, have for many years experimented with various techniques and procedures; and the use they make of language laboratory facilities is based on their own findings, not merely on the experience of others. The fact that both of these schools use these facilities as an integral part of their intensive language courses, even though their classes rarely have more than 10 students and are always taught by native speakers, indicates that they consider regular and frequent practice indispensable to the student who is learning to speak a foreign language.

Some of the basic problems found in secondary schools are revealed in a 1962-63 cooperative survey of foreign language instructional equipment in 16 states, including Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Almost half (2,673 out of 6,423) of the foreign language teachers reported had received no training in the use of audiovisual equipment during the last four years. The training received could vary from one hour in a workshop to an 8-week NDEA Institute. Yet the pedagogical effectiveness of any language laboratory installation depends not on its mere use, but on the way in which it is used. One can learn how to operate a tape recorder in one hour but the functional and effective pedagogical use of a language laboratory requires many hours of thoughtful discussion and practice.

Only about forty per cent (1,490) of the total number of schools reporting (3,695) had some kind of language laboratory installation, 748 installations had half or less than half enough student positions to accommodate a full class in one session, and 694 installations were of the passive-listening (headphones only) type. Another self-defeating condition reported is an appalling number of classes over 30 (and even up to 40!) in size.

Somehow, well-meaning administrators have inadvertently created a static and outdated concept that *one* language laboratory per secondary school should be the standard. The 1960 *Evaluation Criteria* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals includes this item: "Does the school have a language laboratory?" The answer might be found in the infamous Keating report: "Yes, and it is used once a week on a haphazard unintegrated basis with any old kind of materials and methods." And no one is very happy about the situation.

laboratories: uses and misuses

Misunderstanding about effective use of language laboratory equipment and gross misuse have been and still are annoying problems. The trial and error period used to be the rule of the day because of the lack of expert guidance but this is no longer the case today, for there is a considerable amount of expert guidance in print from such sources as the U. S. Office of Education and State foreign language supervisors. In addition, there is consultant help available through Title III, NDEA at State departments of education and through the Modern Language Association.

In spite of the flow of information and the increased in-service training programs we still find experienced teachers who continue to hold foreign language class recitation activities in lab rooms which are equipped with booths, instead of taking the class back to a regular classroom after a half period in the lab so that regular class activities may proceed unhampered and another class can have access to the lab. Also, when we do have a separate lab room, why does it have to be so far from the foreign language classrooms that trips to the lab are discouraging for both teachers and students?

It should be abundantly clear that problems of this type, as well as those caused by lack of adequate service and maintenance of equipment, are doing more harm than good, for it is difficult enough to teach effectively under favorable conditions with or without equipment. Unless equipment is planned and used so that it truly becomes an *aide* to the teacher, its potential unfortunately becomes a negative influence and we are worse off than if we did not even have it.

future success

Let us steer away from extremist approaches and examine with an open mind what appears to be the mainstream and promising directions for future success. There are, of course, still with us some unsettled questions of various preferences and choices, more often based on empathy and taste, rather than on reason and experience. There are some who speak out boldly about the dangers of students recording their response and comparing it with the model without ever having had the experience of teaching with a recording lab. It is not a question of dialog *or* pattern drills *or* free *or* controlled conversation, any more than it is a question of listen *or* respond *or* compare *or* monitor *or* confirm. Language is complex and language learning is complex. It takes a variety of organized activities to teach language successfully, for the art and science of teaching includes the judicious selection, timing, measuring, and blending of the many ingredients involved.

Distrust of machines is not very new. I remember the story told to me as a child of the legendary Bishop Warren Akin Candler, former president of Emory. It is said that he was driving an early Model-T Form and ended up in a ditch. A passerby asked if he should call a doctor. The bishop, whose pride was more injured than his body, proclaimed, "If you're going to get medical help, you'd better get a veterinarian because only a jackass would drive one of these fool contraptions!"

After my own experience in working with the foreign language program of Title III of the National Defense Education Act for five years, I now feel keenly aware of changes that can take place in half a decade in education.

Therefore, I feel bold enough to venture a few predictions on what the situation will be like five years from now:

1. Simplified electronic classrooms will be more useful than ever for daily guided practice and correction of students. Such facilities will be available in most foreign language classrooms in most secondary schools. Audio programs may in some cases be piped in through various kinds of centralized remote-control systems but the teacher must continue to have full control over the movement of the program, including random access to elements of the program and not just starting and stopping a given audio lesson.

2. Secondary schools of medium and large size will be equipped with language laboratory rooms containing student booths and recorders (probably with individual remote-control) for individualized independent study with the more successful versions of current Programed Instruction efforts. Large groups can be accommodated in such a facility, yet each student will work at his own pace.

3. As an integral part of basic level programed language self-instruction, there will be small-group (3 to 5 students) display sessions with an instructor for 15–30 minutes once or twice a week. It is almost impossible to dispense with the responsive, live human touch entirely. Verbal output just does not seem to be able to continue to flourish with machines as it does with other living creatures. A live supervisory element also seems necessary to keep slower students from bogging down in a rut or dawdling.

4. Simplified audio tape machines with one or two controls which provide a choice of several pedagogical modes of sophisticated tape handling on an automatic measuring basis, as well as immediate and repetitive, retrieval-playback of any program segment of any given (variable) length at will and does the same (immediate, fraction of a second, retrieval) with student responses, all without the need for conventional rewinding of tape will be available from industry. Such devices can be used either with new programmed-learning materials or with current audiolingual dialog and pattern drill tapes with or without built-in pauses or repetitions. Some of these features are already available in limited commercial attempts to provide such equipment, but a real break-through is imminent for a device which does all these things in split-second, "apple-pie" order and with consistent accuracy. It is amazing to experience what a difference it makes in a record-compare cycle when the model and response are retrieved and compared while their acoustical images are still ringing in your ear. We all know that the auditory memory span for these acoustical images is extremely short and fleeting. The past ten to fifteen years have seen very little basic change in language laboratory equipment, but the next five years will show major improvements in quality and sophistication.

5. Student record-and-compare learning activities will be accepted again as productive and used on a more sophisticated basis, especially with improved audio discrimination training materials and techniques.

6. New kinds of audio learning materials and techniques with special acoustical adjustments, such as speeded speech without distortion or electronically filtered sidetone to provide certain compensations for individual differences, will become available.

7. Small projectors and video tape machines will be used more and more to present authentic contemporary intercultural material for large group and individualized reviewing and previewing. Among the new materials will be filmed dem-

onstrations of contrastive paralanguage and kinesic behavior patterns in context, such as gestures commonly used in the foreign cultures.

8. We should not expect any unusual break-through of the science-fiction type in which sleep-learning, "instant" language, "total immersion," and other glib approaches which claim to yield a better product on a commercial basis. Yet we can expect to learn a great deal more from research in psycholinguistics about the nature of language and language learning, and students will be able to reach new levels of proficiency with more efficiency and which heretofore have not been feasible under school conditions.
9. Telephone-type audio systems will appear on more university campuses and the possibilities of simplified mass oral testing through centralized telephone facilities will be realized.
10. And finally, satellite communications will revolutionize the availability of fresh audio and video materials from the major continents of the world. Educational repositories for such materials will also make selective availability similar to library books and periodicals become a reality.

demands and changes

Finally, through research in colleges and universities and through practice and trial in the schools, the usefulness of the language laboratory concept has been validated over and over again, and is constantly being validated currently—in situations where both teachers and administrators recognize the potentialities of the laboratory concept and plan together to find the best ways of integrating the new methods into the total foreign language curriculum. If in some places the language laboratory is still considered a fad or a status symbol, lack of careful and cooperative planning by administrators and teachers is probably to blame.

For at least 15 years the materials, methods, and procedures needed for effective use of the language laboratory have been evolving. There is still a great need for better trained teachers and for enough facilities to give first- and second-year language students the practice time they need. For more advanced courses much progress also has been made in the development of materials and procedures, but before the nationwide situation can be called anywhere near satisfactory, we will have to expend much more time and effort.

All during the time when most secondary schools have struggled to adapt to changes and to meet the demands placed upon them, college and university professors have played an uneven role: they have shown themselves both enlightened and uninformed; some have been trail blazers while others have put up obstacles to change. The famous American know-how that produced the technology of the language laboratory is unfortunately not present in all school systems to receive the laboratory equipment when it arrives. Teachers must be taught how to use the new equipment and the new materials; but many States, though they have approved purchases of equipment and materials with the aid of Federal funds provided under Title III of the NDEA, have been less eager to use funds available under the same program to provide in-service programs for the teachers.

Despite the problems and the handicaps, however, schools and colleges both in this country and abroad have made tremendous strides toward the fully effective use of equipment and materials in foreign language classrooms. We already know that the language laboratory (or electronic classroom) can be effective; what remains to be seen is how long it will take for our schools and colleges not only to acquire adequate laboratory facilities but to learn how to use them effectively.

foreign language in elementary schools

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FLES is precisely what it purports to be, i.e. the study of foreign languages in the elementary schools. Contrary to what some eager teachers, enthusiastic parents, and misguided administrators have tried to make it, FLES does not stand for "frills for the latest in experimental schools." Its sole business is the really serious one of teaching foreign languages. And, if the facts of our educational system did not entrust this early language teaching to special teachers, under a different administration, and even regulated by a different set of state regulations, I think we should simply strike the E S and speak only of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning, irrespective of the level, Elementary School, High School, or College. But we do, in practice, have FLES, and, in the jargon, FLSS (for the secondary schools); indeed, although I have not seen it, FLCU may exist for the Colleges and Universities. Be that as it may, I want to start by a brief consideration of the first half of our title, or the *FL*, before looking more directly into the *ES* aspect of the question.

nature of language

For Foreign Languages a certain number of things should now be considered as established, so that we need not go back over them. Parker and many others have demonstrated pressing reasons for acquiring competency in foreign languages. Thanks to linguistics, most of us understand that a language consists of an arbitrary system of sound and arrangement contrasts used by a society for communication. We are aware that the acquisition of any language, be it native or foreign, requires the development of specific skills of hearing and interpreting the contrasts, of producing them to convey a message, of recognizing and reproducing the graphic symbols used to preserve them. Without denying the importance of the written form of a language, we now accept the primacy of the spoken form, historically, for purposes of analysis of the language, and when determining order and emphasis in learning. We know that every language functions within a specific cultural context, so that it is impossible to learn a language without becoming familiar with its concomitant culture. And finally we realize that to acquire the skills and knowledge mandatory for the needed competency in a foreign language is not possible in one or two years of college, or even in four years of high school, but requires seven, eight or even ten years of a continuous school program.

learning sequence

If the necessity for a long sequence is established, then the school year in which the study should start can be determined by deciding when it is desired to attain the final goal of basic competency in the foreign language and counting back the number of years involved in the sequence. I feel that this basic competency should be achieved by the end of the high school. If it is, then foreign languages can serve as effective tools in college history, literature, social sciences and sciences, as well as fulfilling their own traditional and still valid humanistic ends. Many careers require a foreign language, not as the primary skill, but as an adjunct, an ancillary. Language competency arrived at by the end of high school should be sufficient to meet this ancillary requirement, thereby freeing the student for full-time preparation of his primary skill or knowledge. Even the person whose planned career is to be that of the language specialist should be ready upon entering college for extension or specialization and not still be shackled by basics. And for the still high percentage of our high school graduates who do not continue their studies, competency in foreign languages must be achieved by the end of their twelfth year or not at all. For all these groups, a sequence sufficiently long to reach our goal means starting in the elementary schools.

Of course, it is not sufficient just to start early and to spend many years studying language, there must be a careful program, learning step by step in an orderly, continuous sequence, carefully articulated from year to year and from one school level to the next. And this leads us to the *ES* part of the FLES and a closer look at foreign language study and teaching in the elementary schools.

The length of the sequence needed to reach basic competency by the end of high school is not the only reason for starting the learning of foreign languages in the grade school. Considered in and for itself, this is the optimum time to begin the acquisition of a second language. Here we are not speaking of opinion, guess, or an experiment. Just as certain basic facts about language and language learning in general have been established now, likewise experimentation and research have demonstrated the advantages of the early start.

foreign languages in elementary schools

Children have a proven ability to attain superior achievement in learning a second language. By the age of five or six their own language is normally securely learned in its sound and structure contrast system, and fortunately, they retain for a number of years the ability to add one or more foreign languages quite rapidly and with much less interference from one language or one cultural system to the other. They are willing and even happy to comply with the needed repetitions, without which we cannot establish normal pattern habits. From them the ear continues for some time to dominate the eye as the main organ for learning, which corresponds to the primacy of the spoken language. Content can correspond to the interest and development of the young learner, with less conflict between relatively sophisticated interests and the simplicity imposed by language limitations.

Now, let us not delude ourselves into feeling that there is some magic spell about the early start which removès all difficulties. There are always individual differences in the language learning ability of children, although they may not be so immediately apparent. Between the starting point in the second or third grade and the sixth or eighth grade, there is a highly important age difference with corresponding differences in personality, learning habits, the content of the other courses, interests, and motivation requirements. Because of these drastic changes within the span of the elementary school, the content and techniques must constantly be adapted and fitted to the child, to his age, and to his level. This adaptation is normal, of course, in the high schools and colleges, but too often I have heard people speak of FLES as a single, simple block, uniform in content and techniques throughout. This necessity for constant adaptation is proof, if proof we need, that FLES itself is a sequence, an integral part of a longer sequence, the superior final results of which depend on an early start in the elementary school.

Having now agreed that FLES is indeed the teaching and learning of foreign languages in the elementary school sector of a continuous and extended sequence, let us consider some of the implications which this disarmingly simple, obvious, and self-evident statement holds for the FLES program of our schools.

aims and objectives

There can be no orderly progression, no articulation, no sequence without a prior definition of the aims and objectives of foreign language study as a whole and thereafter of each specific level. These aims cannot be defined without prior understanding of what language is and how a second language is acquired. There has been some fine intuitive teaching by gifted persons with adequate competency in the foreign language, but the elaboration of a sequence demands more than even a series of good individual teachers; it cannot exist without an overall agreement and understanding of the general and specific aims and objectives. Without prior definition, how can one determine whether there should be a FLES program or not, what its content should be, who is to teach it, how it is to be scheduled, what methods, techniques and materials are to be used, how results are to be evaluated, how all parts are to be integrated into an effective whole. Such a definition of aims and objectives is so obviously basic, that I would seem to be belaboring a point if we did not all know how many teachers, how many schools, how many school systems, how many state departments of public instruction have failed to lay this solid foundation, without which no one can rightfully hope to erect a valid structure.

early start

An early decision must be reached as to the grade level at which the program is to start and for whom it is intended. In the light of what I expect in language competency by the end of high school, I should like to see systematic foreign language study start by the third grade. This gives a four-your sequence before junior high or six years before senior high and permits considerable learning before the student passes on to another set of teachers and another administrative unit. It also makes it possible to let the child become well established in school, in formal study of his own language, but still gives one four years of the child's optimum capability for learning orally a second language. But, in determining the starting point, one must always be sure that there is provision for continuity all the way to the next administrative level—foreign language study cannot be a one-year adventure followed by a long blank. Perhaps one or two years of instruction in some foreign language in isolation rather than as a part of a sequence can be justified on the grounds of social understanding, world-awareness, or something of the sort, but not as true foreign language study.

During the four to six years of the FLES part of the long sequence, I would favor the inclusion of all the elementary school pupils. The duration of the elementary school part is sufficient to provide significant basic skill in the language and some valuable acquaintance with another culture, which I do not feel should be denied any child. By the high school level, the very weak students can be allowed to discontinue their foreign language and concentrate on their other studies, while the truly gifted can go ahead on an accelerated track and add one or more additional foreign languages.

extended sequence

A decision must be reached about what language or languages are to be taught. Here again, the necessity of a sequence is a determining factor. No language should be chosen for study in the elementary school unless it can be continued in the junior and senior high schools. If continuity can be assured, then community traditions and interest certainly play an important role in the selection of the language both at the lower and upper levels. When several languages are taught in the high school, there should be some attempt to provide feeders to all the languages with provision for starting a second foreign language of the child's desire and indicated needs when he reaches high school. I do not feel that there is justification in most areas for teaching the so-called exotic languages at the elementary school level; if the community can provide such desirable instruction, it should come as a second foreign language choice in high school.

selective teacher preparation

Having defined the objectives and having decided what language is to be taught and to whom, one reaches the vital question as to who is to teach. Since FLES is not a game, but rather an integral part of the language sequence, it follows that successful foreign language teaching in the elementary school requires as much competency and effectiveness on the part of the teacher as at any other level. This does not mean necessarily a broad literary background, for example, but it does presume understanding of what language is, what language learning is, competency in the foreign language itself, and a knowledge of methods and techniques for teaching it to children. Without qualified teachers, the all-important basic part of the long sequence is doomed. This should rule out the untrained classroom teacher, the person who just studied the language in college, or the untrained native speaker. The choice then lies between the specialist teacher, adequately trained for the specific task of teaching in the elementary school, and good television teaching, using a fine teacher, a well-conceived and well-executed program, with carefully supervised classroom follow-up by non-specialists, having been given adequate training, equipped with necessary guides and materials, and properly supervised. There has been bad teaching by so-called specialists who in fact were not and should never have been allowed in a classroom; there have been miserable failures in some ill-conceived T.V. teaching attempts. On the other hand, both have proved highly successful when well-done. Indeed, I feel that each offers some specific advantages so that the ideal might very well be a team-teaching effort combining both. But, specialist or T.V. teaching, to be valid, must conform to the definition of aims and objectives and must provide for continuity in the sequence . . . an excellent isolated specialist or a one- or two-year T.V. program, no matter how good, is simply not acceptable in the light of the requirements of the sequence. Granted, such qualified specialist teachers or good long-term T.V. instruction are very hard to find; but the future of foreign language teaching in the elementary schools, the future of our foreign language students, depends on finding or on preparing them. We cannot allow compromise and condone poor teaching, no matter by whom it is done.

planning schedules

The matter of who is to do the teaching being settled, the FLES program must be scheduled and the content of each part be established in detail within the framework and time allotments of the schedule. Scheduling is not determined by the administration's convenience or the need for babysitting service. It is rather to be decided by the nature of language learning, the objectives to be reached, the techniques to be used, the specific characteristics of the children at a given age and grade level. Knowing the overall objectives of the sequence and of each part, knowing also who is teaching and according to what schedule, then the detail of the course content must still be worked out, along with specific techniques adapted to the presentation of each element of the course. This rigorous preliminary planning not only insures continuity and the possibility of articulation, but, in reality, frees the teacher from pressures of improvisation and allows him to devote his full time and energy to the teaching itself.

chosing materials

Materials to be used are intimately connected with who is to do the teaching and what the course content is to be. In the early days of FLES most teachers had to create their own materials as they went. That was not only heroic, but was, unfortunately, for the most part not too successful. Quite often those who write or speak on FLES assume that we are still in exactly those same primitive times. It is true that many sins have been and are still being committed by editors and producers in the name of FLES. However, I do believe that there are materials for specialist and T.V. teaching now available or becoming available which conform to the aims and objectives of language teaching in general and to the initial stages in the elementary school particularly, furnish real guidance in planning the program of the course content, and provide for continuity. FLES teachers and supervisors should be quite sure that nothing is really available before they set themselves up as curriculum specialists and start their whole program from scratch. By this, I do not mean to imply that the perfect materials have yet been devised, or that, for that matter, they ever will be. But conscientious, well-informed, experienced people have worked and reworked the best of the materials, and I would rather entrust my child to them than to the harried, albeit enthusiastic improvisor. The teacher's creativity and individual needs are not threatened by a wise choice of materials. Working within the framework of the aims and objectives, and the determined course content, calling on his knowledge of language and language learning, the good teacher always adapts and modifies his daily presentation and his materials to the specific group and the specific moment and he is the more at liberty to do this since his chosen materials are there to support him.

evaluation

FLES, not as an entity unto itself, but as a part of the extended sequence, further implies constant and effective evaluation. Without such evaluation it is impossible to be sure that each part of the sequence can and is working as planned, that each teacher is carrying his load and fulfilling his function, that orderly transition can take place between each level, and that the desired end-result will be attained. Judgment of materials and techniques, of the appropriateness of the items in the course content, and the efficacy of the program as a whole should not be left to subjective impressions but rather should be based on rigorous, objective evaluation. Such evaluation is itself totally dependent on a knowledge of the nature of language, of the way a second language is learned, and of the aims and objectives for the whole sequence and for each sub-division. Without evaluation there will be no sequence.

overall planning and supervision

A final implication of FLES as an integral part of the total sequence is the necessity of overall planning and supervision. Such planning and supervision is necessary in each school, within each school system, and within larger units such as the state. This responsibility can be assumed by one of the teachers in an isolated school. However, as soon as one is dealing with a school system of any considerable size, a general coordinator and supervisor for all foreign languages becomes essential, aided, if need be, by persons specialized in teaching at the different levels. The sequence can only exist as a team effort on the part of all teachers, but to teach a full schedule and, in addition, to plan, supervise and evaluate the whole program, is too heavy a burden, and either the teaching or the coordination would suffer. Each is a full-time job and wherever there is a music coordinator, or English supervisor, the school should also be realistic enough to provide such a staff member for foreign languages, including FLES.

For the courageous individual teacher struggling, as I have done, and as so many are doing, to get beyond the meager standard year or two of high school and to awaken some awareness in the community of the nature and value of foreign languages in the grades, some, and even much of what I have had to say may seem unrealistic, a description of some dream world, possible, if ever, only in some far unforeseeable future. But I have, nonetheless, stated what I am convinced is required if we are to have good foreign language study in the elementary schools. We cannot afford to let FLES be a fad, improvised in enthusiasm but leading nowhere except to eventual disappointment, disillusion, and a final negative impact. Languages should be taught in the elementary schools, but only as a desirable, valid, and even mandatory part of the extended sequence so vital in our times.

foreign languages in secondary schools

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The teaching-learning process in today's foreign language classes is a constellation of disciplines involving psychology and linguistics in addition to knowledge of educational techniques, the subject-matter, and the use of technological aids. Today's goal is language for communication. This is accomplished by emphasizing the listening-speaking skills as a point of departure. Such an emphasis does not reduce the importance of reading and writing—it merely places them in proper perspective.

Applied linguistics has greatly strengthened foreign language teaching by providing the teacher information concerning the important differences between the sounds and structures of two languages. A systematic comparison enables the teacher to predict trouble spots and to give due emphasis to the points of real difficulty. This is what makes present foreign language teaching effective and exciting.

From the outset the student must become engaged in using the second language. One cannot effectively learn to speak another language by talking *about* it. It has been suggested that 85% of class time be devoted to practice and no more than 15% to explanation and commentary. The exact percentage distribution mentioned is not so important as the initial and continual stress on the use of the language.

The end product of such training will vary according to the quantity and quality of a program. Generally, however, and within the range of the learner's experience a student should:

A. *Understand* the spoken language (studied) when used at normal tempo by a native speaker.

B. *Speak* and express himself clearly enough to provide direct communication with a native.

C. *Read* with direct understanding (not translating) non-technical material.

D. *Write* without conscious reference to English whatever the pupil can read, speak, and understand.

I. In order to implement the above goals the teacher should possess:

A. A sound background in the subject-matter—including proficiency in the listening-speaking skills and in reading and writing. In addition he should be knowledgeable in the literature and civilization of the country whose language is being taught.

B. An understanding of the nature of language and how it works. This includes familiarity with the differences in phonology, morphology, and syntax between the first and second language.

C. Savoir-faire in techniques of teaching *all* skills including the teaching of reading and writing.

D. An understanding of the value and use of technological aids.

II. In addition, a teacher should:

A. Understand and apply different evaluation procedures, longitudinal and cross-sectional, in ascertaining pupil learning.

B. Know and use sources of information on standardized tests, instructional material, and curriculum developments.

C. Join professional language organizations; subscribe and contribute to language journals, and set time aside for reviewing new materials.

D. Organize teaching procedures so that variety is possible and recognition is given to individual differences.

E. Relate foreign languages to other school disciplines. We must not teach in isolation. Foreign language has much to contribute to liberal education.

F. Be familiar with what is being taught, how it is done, and what materials are used in the elementary school as well as in the college and university. The secondary teacher and the elementary teacher should not only know what the other is doing, but should also basically agree on techniques and materials used. Secondary schools should build upon prior instruction and not start over or force the student to adjust to a "traditional" approach. The same need for liaison is true for the secondary school-college gap as well as for the year-to-year secondary sequence.

G. Visit other foreign language classes and participate in in-service programs.

III. On a practical level the teacher should:

A. Provide the student opportunity to speak and practice the second language from the outset.

B. Present early in the course, and throughout its entirety, exercises in listening comprehension of native speech.

C. Use drills which will enable the learner, by much repetition, to acquire the new sounds and structures as habits. Such acquisition may be aided by providing him with basic sentences in dialog fashion. A teacher cannot afford to wait until the student masters all the grammar and vocabulary before using the language.

D. Know and apply procedures which will enable transfer of material memorized (grammatical patterns, phonology) to the production (generation) of non-cued new material.

E. Tell the student *why* dialogs and structural drills are used.

F. Be ready to model the elicited response when student falters. Don't let it be a "guessing game."

G. Not allow students to use English during the body of the class—they have enough interference without teachers encouraging same.

H. Continually model and emphaside correct intonation, stress, and juncture.

I. Teach vocabulary in context, not in isolation. In the early stages, however, concentrate on teaching patterns of the language—limiting vocabulary study.

J. Present culture as part of the language and not divorced from it.

K. Use such aids as the language laboratory, tapes, and discs to further establish new habits.

IV. According to levels of instruction (not grades) the following should take place:

A. *Levels I and II*

1. *Listening:* Model clearly and repeatedly the sounds and patterns prior to student repetition. (Tapes or discs may be found quite useful at this stage.)

2. *Speaking:* Don't allow students to speak what has not been modeled for them by the teacher or tape. Speaking practice may be done first by group and then by smaller groups and/or individually.

3. *Reading:* Limit reading, at first, to recognition of written symbols that sound system has been accomplished, prior oral practice need not always be done.

4. *Writing:* Introduce writing after reading has been practiced. (At first any writing should be limited to the copying of known material.)

5. *Grammar:* Discuss grammar in terms of description of patterns learned orally. (It should be descriptive and not prescriptive).

6. *Evaluation:* Test all skills including listening comprehension, sound discrimination, oral production, reading, and writing.

B. *Levels III and IV*

1. *Listening:* Continue to serve as model for new patterns.
2. *Speaking:* Continue developing this skill by giving the student much practice. By Level IV the student should approach near-native control of the second language within the framework of vocabulary and structure covered.
3. *Reading:* Allow the student to start reading some new material in Level III and progress towards full development of this power by Level IV.
4. *Writing:* Continue at first to work closely with material read and move toward such exercises as completion, changes of form, and dictation. Attention to style, as well as some free composition, should take place in Level IV particularly if such a level is terminal.
5. *Grammar:* Reinforce those structures learned as patterns and move toward more analogy. At this time, new basic forms are also introduced. By the end of Level IV the student should control most of the structure of the second language.
6. *Evaluation:* Continue to test all skills.

	70%	*15%*	*15%*
Levels I & II	Listening-Speaking (Audio-Lingual)	Reading	Writing
	34%	*33%*	*33%*
Levels III & IV	Listening-Speaking (Audio-Lingual)	Reading	Writing

Given percentages imply lack of categorical division due to variables in maturity of students, in instructional techniques, equipment, and materials.

language laboratory

It must be understood that the language laboratory serves its main purpose as an *aid* to language instruction. It is very effective as an adjunct to what is presented in the classroom and, generally, should be used following classroom presentation. Its salient advantages follow:

A. It enables each student to have equal hearing conditions regardless of his classroom location. This is of utmost value in the early stages for it provides the learner the opportunity to listen to new sounds in a much more effective manner than human voice projection. (Thus, it is very important that the laboratory have excellent fidelity.)

B. It provides the teacher the opportunity of checking and helping students on an individual basis. The teacher can work with one student without interrupting others. (This, by the way, has great psychological advantages.)

C. It provides the teacher the means with which to record each student's production at a central location for evaluation and testing purposes.

The language laboratory also provides an "untiring" consistent model, variety of native voices, and frees the teacher from presenting repetitive material. (So does the tape recorder.)

The advantages of using a language laboratory have been demonstrated—especially in teaching pronunciation. Therefore, since the speaking skill is emphasized from the outset, the student should have access to a laboratory when he begins the study of a foreign language. At this level it is highly desirable to provide extensive listening and speaking practice prior to recording of speech production. Why? Because the beginning student does not hear all of the sounds of the second language and needs practice in overcoming native habits. The learner needs to break the "sound barrier" before he can benefit from any recording for comparison purposes.

Experience has demonstrated that the laboratory is effective *if* used by a teacher who emphasizes primarily the listening-speaking skills. One cannot expect to obtain good results by using "traditional" techniques and materials. Using the laboratory only to read a passage from a "traditional" textbook will not necessarily improve the student's pronunciation.

the new horizon teacher

Today's foreign language class calls for a different type of teacher from that of the not-too-distant past. It takes a person who knows the subject (including near-native control of the spoken language); knows and uses new techniques, materials, and instructional media; knows and takes advantage of findings in psychology and linguistics; and is interested in the broad spectrum of education. We have these teachers—but not enough of them. It will take the joint effort of secondary-school teachers, teacher-preparing institutions, state departments of education, and the federal government to fill this void. Secondary-school teachers who understand the processes involved in today's foreign language teaching should make themselves heard more often; teacher-preparing institutions who have not adjusted their programs to meet today's needs should be heard less until they do so. State departments of education should try to bring both sides closer together, conduct in-service training, and provide consultative service by using outstanding secondary-school teachers. And, the federal government should continue to provide the services it presently provides through the various titles of National Defense Education Act.

evaluation of language learning through testing

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The U.S. Office of Education asked a group of us to prepare a set of guidelines for the evaluation of FLES. We developed a rating scale based on observation of classes, materials, preparation of the teacher, time allotted to the foreign language, curriculum arrangements ,etc., but we agreed that these constituted only indirect evidence of a good program; that the real proof of the success of a program was the ability of the pupils to use the language, and this could best be determined through valid tests. The same can be said with regard to all language programs, FLES or other.[1]

Let us talk then about foreign language tests, a field in which exciting things have happened of late. And to put our thoughts in perspective, let us glance back at testing in the not-too-distance past.

a glance back

When grammar-translation methods prevailed in the classroom and in professional discussions, it was natural that grammar-translation tests should also hold sway. When the rules of grammar had to be memorized for class, and translation was a major class activity, one would expect tests to rely equally on these activities, and they did. Today, when such methods are no

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Note: For a full treatment of the construction and use of language tests, see *Language Testing* by Robert Lado, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

[1] *Guidelines for the Evaluation of FLES,* Robert Lado, et al, Title VI, Section 602, P.L. 85–864, 75 pp., No. SAE-9184.

longer defended in open debate, it is perhaps too easy to criticise such tests with snug self-righteousness. But criticise we must, for even if not defended in open discussion, such tests are still used more frequently than one would like.

Translation as a test of ability to use a foreign language in speaking, listening, reading, and writing has serious limitations: (1) The most proficient students do not translate when they use the language. (2) There are various ways to translate and to evaluate a translation: for artistic purposes, for accuracy of information, for grammatical parallelism, for vocabulary equivalence. If we force a student to translate for vocabulary equivalence or grammatical parallelism, as is often the case in translation tests, we may tend to dull his taste for artistic translation.

(3) The grading of translation tends to be inaccurate and slow because of the various ways to translate and the resulting variation in scoring. (4) Translation represents a special skill different from speaking, listening, reading or writing. (5) Translation is comparatively slow as a test. Unless he has had special training, a good student takes longer to translate a letter than to write directly in the foreign language. In the time that he translates a passage he can handle more material using other techniques. (6) The use of translation in the examination tends to encourage the abuse of translation in the classroom.

Perhaps the only favorable things to be said for translation as a test of proficiency seem to be that translation questions are easy to set and they are compact. The price paid for these advantages seems excessively high.

grammatical analysis

Tests that call for grammatical analysis on the part of the student seem equally invalid today for our foreign language objectives. Labeling parts of speech, defining grammatical terms, giving rules, supplying examples under grammatical terms, are of questionable validity as measures of the ability to use a foreign language: (1) Ability to analyse a language and to use it are very different things. (2) Most of those who use the language well are unable to analyse it accurately or completely, and those who can analyse a language often cannot use it. (3) Differences in terminology among grammarians and linguists are an added complication in giving instructions to students and in scoring.

But let us not spend any more time on these tests, which are no longer defended. What are the tests that we accept today, the ones we do not question, but which some day might be questioned as vigorously as we question grammar-translation techniques and objectives now?

testing today

Techniques that involve the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) hold the center of the stage today without question. These are performance tests which have face validity, i.e., the appearance of validity. If we wish to know whether or not a person speaks, understands, reads or writes a language, it seems valid on the face of it to have him speak, listen, read, or write.

If language were as simple as a mimeograph machine, these techniques would be more than adequate, for to find out if an applicant can operate a mimeograph machine, one asks the person to run a stencil for us. But language is more complex than a mimeograph machine, and getting the pupil to speak is not enough.

(1) The personality of the student colors our impression of his ability to speak. (2) The tense situation under which the student is tested may produce non-typical performances that influence overall impression much more than specific linguistic problems. (3) Scoring oral responses is overly subjective even under well-controlled conditions. The differences may be great not only among different examiners but for the same examiner at different times. (4) Individually administered oral tests are time consuming for the examiner and as a result tend to be made so short that they may become useless. A 15-minute speaking test administered to 100 students takes three days and one hour for an examiner working eight hours a day without a coffee break.

written composition

The writing of an essay on an assigned topic enjoys great prestige not only as a test of ability to write, but as a sign of intelligence, education, and academic achievement as well. Historically, the ability to write has been the chief sign of learning. In defending the use of composition on tests, it is usually said that they force the student to think, to organize his thoughts, and to deal with mature topics rather than trivial detail.

On close examination, however, we notice some unexpected limitations.

(1) A single composition is usually a poor sample of the patterns, vocabulary, spelling, and even punctuation of the language. The usual composition does not elicit a single question or request from the student. The student will avoid the problems he has in the language.

(2) The grading of compositions is a problem. H. Chauncy wrote in the *Atlantic Monthly* that essay examinations were unreliably written and less reliably read. He mentions a study in which 15 teachers out of 28 who read the same composition on two separate occasions gave it a passing mark the first time but failed it the second; while 11 who failed it the first time passed it on the second. He also reports that differences persist when selected teachers are given a day's training and practice in grading sample papers and then supervised by veteran table leaders.[2]

auditory comprehension

Probably the most solid advance in recent years has been the inclusion of listening comprehension tests in the foreign languages. The CEEB has an auditory comprehension. The *MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests* have excellent sections on AC, as do the *MLA Proficiency Tests.* In all of these the student is told something in the target language and his comprehension of it is checked by various devices.

The wide acceptance and use of such tests represents a great advance with resultant benefit for the teaching of speaking and listening in the classroom. But it isn't enough merely to have the student listen and then check his comprehension. Consider the following two test items in EFL. They both have the student listen and they check his comprehension, yet one is useless and the other is quite valuable.

In one the tape says "The man is watching the car" and the student must choose from among three pictures depicting a man watching a car. The same was watching a ship and then watching a dog. To choose the car picture all he has to do is distinguish between *car, ship,* and *dog;* a simple vocabulary matter that could have been tested more easily as a paper-and-pencil item.

The other item has the student listen to the same sentence but he must choose between pictures of a man *watching* the car and *washing* it. Now the student must hear the difference between the /č/ of *watching* and the /š/ of *washing,* and this is one out of the twenty-five pronunciation problems that a Spanish-speaking student has in mastering English.

The same weaknesses could be shown in reading tests that rely merely on the face validity of reading without testing the specific problems that the student has in mastering this skill.

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[2] Henry Chauncey, "The Plight of the English Teacher." *The Atlantic Monthly,* vol. 204, no. 5, p. 123, November, 1959.

The best results available to us today come from applying what we know about the nature of language and the facts of Spanish, English, French, etc. to these listening and speaking, reading and writing tests. Let us prepare tests that not only have the appearance of being valid but actually test the learning problems. Here are some useful examples that teachers may be able to apply to classroom use.

The technique to test auditory comprehension which is most widely accepted is that in which the teacher or examiner reads the lead containing a problem, and the student marks the choice that shows he understands the lead. This technique can be used for pronunciation:

Problem: *r* versus *rr* in Spanish (pero:perro)

Lead: El perito comió la comida

Choices: (1) un hombre comió la comida
(2) un animal comió la comida
(3) un niño comió la comida

It can be used to test auditory comprehension of grammar:

Problem: Word order of modifier and head in English

Lead: What is a watch pocket?

Choices: (1) a watch
(2) a pocket
(3) a man looking for something

And, of course, it can be used to test vocabulary, by easy adaptation which needs no illustration.

As a general rule, the choices should not contain more difficult problems than the lead. This can be accomplished by giving the choices in the native language or in pictures, but carefully prepared simple choices in the target language are quite effective.

To test auditory perception of phonemic differences without having to go through full meaning there is an excellent set of techniques, the most effective of which merely asks the student if two or three short sentences are the same or different:

Problem: *r* versus *rr* in Spanish

Leads: pero, pero, perro
caro, carro, caro
corro, coro, coro
perrito, perrito, perrito

Response: Student merely writes 1 and 2 for pero, pero, perro, to indicate that he hears the first and second words as the same. This, of course, is a "partial" technique, i.e., it does not represent full use of the language, but it has great power to range over the entire sound system quickly and completely.

To test writing, there are various techniques which force the student to use those elements that are troublesome to him. This overcomes the subjectivity of grading compositions and provides more complete coverage of all the problems of writing. To test spelling for example:

Problem: *s* versus *ss*
Item: *Profe or* Smith is a fine teacher.
Response: Fill the missing letter or letters.

To test pronunciation:

Problem: Use of questions marks before and after a question in Spanish.
Item: Los juguetes de Jose ( ) donde estan ( )
Response: Write the necessary punctuation.

To test grammar in use:

Problem: Word order and selection of question pattern in English.
Item: (1) you (2) understand English?
Choices: A. Do
B. Does
C. Have
D. Has
Response: Select the choice *and* the position to complete the question. (D-1)

To test grammar in connected context:

Problem: Partial reproduction and selection of verb form required by context.
Item: I..........three things during my short visit to Paris (s--, s-w, s--n)
that would..........interested you greatly . . . (h--e, h-d, h-s)

Objective speaking tests remain difficult to prepare. Considerable progress has been made with techniques using picture stimuli to elicit sentences and connected responses. To test pronunciation in speaking:

Problem: /d/ versus /th/ in English. (ladder:lather)
Item: Picture of a man reading a newspaper.
Response: Tell what you see in the picture.

The examiner concentrates on the *d* of reading.

Tests of reading comprehension are widely known and used and need no elaboration here except to point out that appearance alone should not be the final criterion of excellence: effectiveness in measuring the student's problems in reading is more important.

We have insisted, in keeping with presently acceptable views, that the tests maintain some semblance of face validity with the added power of the problems that the student must overcome to achieve mastery. We should candidly ask if this is not overly limiting? In the field of medicine there was a time when disinfectants had to sting or burn to be considered effective. This is no longer so. A white pill cures pneumonia and a similarly appearing white pill sweetens coffee. The look and taste of the medicine bear no relation to its use and effectiveness; it is results that count.

When will we as a profession be willing to try and accept an abstract silent test as a measure of speaking ability? Will we reject such a technique because it does not *look* reasonable or will we ask for evidence of performance? When and if we reach that stage of professional sophistication, we will be ready to test language proficiency much more fully and easily and completely.

the mla foreign language test

joseph g. astman
hofstra university, new york

brief history

This past year the Office of Director of Testing was established at MLA headquarters in New York with the support of the USOE. The prime purpose of the office is to serve the FL profession as a clearinghouse for the dissemination of information in the testing field and to develop further tests at the discretion of the profession. The establishment of this office was another step in the expansion of the FL operation of the MLA.

phase one: foundation support

The FL Program came into existence back in 1952 supported by a grant of $120,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation, with an additional grant of $115,000 in 1954. This first phase of the FL program, from 1952 to 1958, was marked by the first edition of William R. Parker's *The National Interest and Foreign Language* in 1954 with a second edition in 1957. Between these two dates—in 1955—the FL Steering Committee drafted a Statement of Qualifications for Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages, a statement originally limited to secondary school teachers, but then broadened to include the whole Modern Foreign Language Profession. This statement defined the categories of *superior, good,* and *minimal* for each of the seven competencies: the four skills—listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing—plus the supplements, or better, perhaps, the complements: applied linguistics, civilization and culture, and professional preparation. On October 4, 1957 Sputnik was launched. The following year *The Ugly American* was a best seller. Midst such national and international pressure, phase one came to an end on August 31, 1958 with the expiration of the second Rockefeller grant, and two days later President Eisenhower signed the NDEA into law. William R. Parker and Kenneth Mildenberger responded to a call from Washington, moved into their NDEA offices and phase two was launched.

As phase one represents the close cooperation between the MLA and the Rockefeller Foundation, so phase two represents an extension of this collaboration to include the Ford and Carnegie foundations as well as the USOE, with all agencies, public and private, responding to a sense of national urgency in the FL field.

phase two: ndea

The NDEA was soon implemented by Language Institutes and Centers. With the establishment of the Institutes came the demand for a series of tests with which not only to place participants in a given institute but also to measure their progress over the course of the summer. Under contract with the USOE and with Wilmarth Starr as Project Director, Forms A & B of the MLA Proficiency Tests in the seven competencies defined above, in five languages, came into existence to be administered in the summer institutes of 1960. The initial battery of seven tests took seven hours to administer. They were cut down and refined to the present battery which requires four hours and were administered for the first time in the summer of 1961.

Under the provisions of the same act, between 1960 and 1963, with leadership provided by Nelson Brooks and Donald Walsh, the MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests were planned, written, pre-tested, analyzed, revised and standardized. These provided tests of competence in the same five languages, in the same basic skills, but for grades seven through fourteen —another step in bridging the gap between high school and college language programs.

Ford Foundation funds provided for the establishment and continuation of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The Center is mainly concerned with the teaching of English as a second language and with the development of teaching materials for African and Asian languages, but it also produced with the MLA and Teaching Film Custodians the series of five motion pictures entitled, *Principles and Methods of Teaching a Second Language.*

The Carnegie Foundation provided funds for the drafting of the *Standards for Teacher-Education Programs in MFL's;* for the Carnegie Teacher Preparation Program under the leadership of Andre Paquette; for a five-year review of the NDEA, prepared by John Diekhoff; for the establishment of the MLA Materials Center under John Harmon; for the maintenance of a panel of consultants available to the profession; and for other studies and surveys.

phase three: the future

With the appearance of the five-year review of the NDEA, the retirement of the tireless Donald Walsh as FL Program Director, and the reorganization of the FL Program within the MLA—all in the late summer of 1965—phase two will come to an end and phase three will be launched. If the enthusiasm generated by this conference is any indication of things to come, the Southern Conference will soon make its presence felt in language circles throughout the country and throughout the world. Congratulations to you and your committee.

proficiency tests

Now a few words about the MLA Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students. With these tests now available, we as a profession no longer have to attempt an answer to such questions as:

1) How many hours does it take to learn French?

2) How many semester hours must a prospective teacher of Spanish take to teach in the classroom?

Any attempt to answer questions with so many variables is of little avail. The variables are many:

1) What is the student's language aptitude?

2) What kind of study habits does he have?

3) Is he motivated?

4) Who is his instructor?

5) Are the courses given in English or the FL?

6) Does the instructor really teach the FL or spend most of his time discussing his personal problems?

7) What grades did the student achieve in his course?

This latter variable calls to mind a situation at my Alma Mater where I was teaching some years ago. A philosopher from England was teaching his first course at an American University—a course in Plato. With a handful of eager and exceptional students the course finally came to an end and the professor submitted his grades. The next day his students were pounding on the door of the department chairman. They were rather bitter about the results. The highest grade was an "85." The chairman called upon the British professor and over a cup of tea discussed again the American system of grading. The philosopher from England admitted that he might have made a mistake and asked what a top grade might have been. The chairman suggested perhaps a "95." "And what would a "95' mean?" "Well, now, supposing the students during the course had absorbed perhaps 95% of the material presented as evidenced by discussion in class, term papers, final exam—" After a moment's hesitation the British professor responded: "Well! In that case —Plato couldn't have gotten a "95."

Now at last we have a battery of tests—the MLA Proficiency Tests to help us answer the original questions not in terms of semester hours, but in terms of language proficiency.

Just this past fall a brochure finally appeared describing the Proficiency Tests. The brochure is "the most up-to-date and authoritative source of information on the nature and content" of the tests. The test construction committees for Forms A and B as well as for the impending Form C are listed with their secondary school, college or testing affiliations. These committees are comprised, for the most part, of your colleagues, classroom teachers involved in daily contact with students and eternally confronted with the problem of testing.

tests description

There are thirty-one tests in Form A, six for the first six competencies in each of the five languages and a seventh test, professional preparation, common to all five languages. Thirty-one for Form B, all equated with their counterparts in Form A; and twenty-five in Form C. The Form C tests will be administered for the first time to the 1965 NDEA Summer Language Institute participants, will be analyzed and revised in the fall, and will be available for general distribution early in 1966. Form C has six fewer tests than Forms A and B since a new battery for Italian was not deemed necessary at this time.

The brochure continues with a brief historical introduction followed by a description of the tests in the seven competencies. The sample questions for listening comprehension are in French, for speaking—in Spanish, for reading —in German, and for writing—in Italian. The sample questions for applied linguistics are from the Russian. The civilization and culture test samples are from all five languages, while the professional preparation test is common to all five languages. It should be pointed out that the sample questions were selected from the stock of rejects or those eliminated when the tests were cut down from an administration period of seven hours to four.

Over 300,000 tests have been administered since the inception of the testing program in 1960. In 1964, 8,000 were tested, 4,000 NDEA Institute participants, and 4,000 outside of the Institutes—undergraduates, graduate students, native speakers. The NDEA Institutes have been the prime users of the Proficiency Tests. As so many of you know, the Institutes generally administer one battery of tests at the outset of the program and another battery at the end. Thus the Proficiency Tests help evaluate the progress of the individual participants, help evaluate the effectiveness of the Institute's program, and provide statistics for possible establishment of norms on various levels. The noteworthy factor in these statistics is that for the first time in our brief history there were as many non-Institute testees as there were Institute testees.

use of tests

Some sixteen states require or recommend the Proficiency Tests as part of their FL certifications programs. Institutions of higher learning use the Tests to measure the language proficiency of their FL majors, and thus evaluate their own FL program; to measure and place potential graduate students; to establish proficiency levels for students entering teaching; and to evaluate the language proficiency of those entering research projects which require FL skills.

The appendix to the brochure discusses statistical characteristics of the Tests, based essentially on test scores from the 1961 NDEA Language Institutes. An analysis of the pre-test and post-test data reveals what one might have expected, namely that NDEA Institutes show more improvement in listening comprehension and speaking than in reading and writing. The greatest percentage increase—of ten percent or better—is reflected in applied linguistics, civilization and culture, and in professional preparation.

Among the statistical characteristics there are percentages reflecting the intercorrelations among the tests in a given language. The following chart shows the intercorrelations in the four skills from the highest degree of intercorrelation to the lowest. Italian is not included because the sixty-five sets of scores available were not sufficient in quantity to yield valid results.

A high degree of intercorrelation might have been anticipated between listening comprehension and speaking. Such is, indeed, the case in Spanish where there is a phenomenal .925 degree of intercorrelation. The other three languages, however, fall between .784 and .727.

Intercorrelations Among Tests.

Based on Test Statistics from 1961 NDEA Language Institutes.

		LR	*LW*	*SR*		*RW*	*French*	*German*	*Russian*	*Spanish*
1	LS									.925
—										
—										
—										
—										
—										
—										
2						RW		.860		
3						RW	.858			
4						RW				.857
—										
—										
—										
—										
5		LR						.817		
—										
6					SW		.804			
7		LR					.800			
8		LR								.797
9			LW							.796
10					SW			.787		
11	LS						.784			
12			LW				.781			
13			LW					.781		
—										
14		LR							.770	
—										
—										
15			LW						.746	
16	LS								.743	
17				SR				.742		
18				SR			.739			
—										
19	LS							.727		
20					SW				.727	
21					SW					.724
—										
—										
22				SR					.697	
23				SR						.691
—										
—										
24						RW			.669	

statistical analysis

With the exception of the intercorrelation between the listening comprehension and speaking tests in Spanish the highest degree of intercorrelation, in general, is between reading and writing—with the exception of Russian. In French, German and Spanish the intercorrelation is above .850. In Russian it is .669—the lowest of all twenty-four combinations in the chart.

Upon second thought it might have been suspected that there would be a high degree of intercorrelation, on the one hand, between speaking and writing as active skills of language learning and, on the other, between listening and reading as passive skills. The intercorrelation between the active skills is comparatively high in French and German, but low in Russian and Spanish. In the passive skills French, German and Spanish cluster around .800, but Russian is lower at .770—the highest degree of intercorrelation, incidentally, between any two of the Russian tests.

One of the most consistent intercorrelations for all four languages occurs in listening and writing. All fall in the middle range—between .796 and .746. Another consistent pattern is reflected between speaking and reading—unfortunately for our purposes, at the lower end of the scale, between .742 and .691.

Intercorrelations among all seven tests reveal from the statistics in the brochure that there is less intercorrelation when the three supplementary tests are involved. Two consistent patterns prevail. In all four languages applied linguistics related best to writing—from a .625 in Spanish to a .738 in German. In all four languages again the professional preparation test relates best to applied linguistics—from .460 in German to .616 in Spanish. Of the four skills the speaking test scores relate least to the three supplementary tests in the four languages.

These statistics, limited as they are to the participants of the 1961 NDEA Language Institutes, reveal the difficulty in predicting scores or evaluating a student's language proficiency on the basis of a single test. Not only are more statistics needed from our total foreign language population, but psychologists will have to tell us more about the learning process in general and about the learning of a second language in particular.

interpretation

A leaflet containing percentile tables for use in interpreting scores obtained on the MLA Proficiency Tests is available at ETS, Princeton. These percentile norms compiled in 1964 were computed from the pre- and post-test scores of the 1961, 62, and 63 NDEA Institute participants.

There are weaknesses in percentile rank scores. A percentile rank of 75 means that the student did better on the test than 75 out of 100 students in the sample. It is important, therefore, to know something about the kinds of students being tested. Nor is the difference in degree of achievement between a student in the 50 to 55 group the same as for the student in the 95 to 99 group. The concentration will fall towards the center. There is the tendency to over-interpret the differences in the middle of the scale and under-interpret at the extremes. This is why College Board scores are cited as "standard scores" ranging from 200-800.[1]

cooperative tests

Now a few words about the MLA Cooperative Tests, often referred to in the past as the Classroom Tests.

As has already been stated, between 1960 and 1963 the MLA Coop Tests were proposed, planned, written, pre-tested, analyzed, revised, and tested again for purposes for standardization. The brochure mentioned above was ready for distribution in 1964.

classroom tests

The Coop Tests appear in the same five languages as the Proficiency Tests —French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, and are constructed for use in both secondary schools and colleges or from the seventh through the fourteenth grades. There are two forms, A and B, on each of two levels of competence: L for lower level and M for higher level. Thus the four sets are labeled LA, LB, MA and MB. The testing time is less than two hours for the four tests. They measure the four skills—listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. The 80 tests were constructed by secondary school and college language teachers under the leadership of the Project Director, Nelson Brooks, and the Director of the MLA-FL Program, Donald D. Walsh. The participating committee members are listed on the inside of back cover.

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[1] To receive copies of the brochures, please write to Director of Testing, Modern Language Association of America, 4 Washington Place, New York, N.Y. 10003, or to Program Director, MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. 08540.

The brochure describes in detail what the tests measure; how the tests are scored; what materials are available, such as tapes, answer sheets, directions for administering and scoring, scoring keys; and what norms are available.

These tests are not secure tests as are the Proficiency Tests. They are generally scored by the teacher or teachers involved and those tests remain in the possession of the purchasing institution.

These tests are effective in evaluating a student's proficiency, in measuring the success of a program or in placing a student on the proper level. The latter use—for placement purposes—is becoming more popular with the colleges looking for an effective measure of their incoming freshmen. Thus the articulation between secondary school and college language programs can be promoted.

future plans and hopes

With the different tests that are presently available one of the serious problems encountered by the MLA Office of Testing is the lack of statistics in the comparing of the various tests with one another.

By administering the MLA Cooperative Tests and the MLA Proficiency Tests to the same groups, some statistics can be arrived at that will give us far more insight into the relationship between these two batteries of tests. By administering the MLA Proficiency Tests in Reading and the Graduate Reading Test to the same groups, we can arrive at some comparable scores that will make it possible to advise those who would use these tests for placement or proficiency purposes.

testing the tests

A whole series of test administrations to the various groups involved in the whole process of language learning and language teaching would give us necessary statistics for making recommendations in articulation in the whole FL field from elementary school to graduate school:

1. The MLA Cooperative Tests should be administered to 6th grade students with various levels of competency. We do not yet know whether these tests are valid for this purpose. It is possible that a whole battery of FLES tests might have to be developed.

2. The MLA Proficiency Tests (the four skills only) as well as the MLA Cooperative Tests should be administered to high school students in ad-

vanced placement sections who have had four or more years of the language. This would give us some insight into the relationship between the two batteries of tests.

3. The MLA Proficiency Tests should be administered to the so-called language minors, students who have had the equivalent of about 18 hours of college language. At this point we have no idea as to what a good score would represent for these students, many of whom are moving into the high school classrooms as language teachers.

4. This spring half of the FL majors who are graduating seniors will take the Proficiency Tests at some 200 colleges and universities. This program, under the guidance of John Carroll at Harvard, is being underwritten by the USOE. Last spring a pilot program—in New York State—served as a model for this national study. Thus more statistics will be available for evaluating our students and our programs.

5. The NDEA Institutes for outstanding college juniors will administer the MLA Proficiency Tests this coming summer. By administering the MLA Cooperative Tests to the same group we would have additional statistics on the correlation between the two batteries.

6. The MLA Proficiency Tests have been administered as qualifying tests for graduate schools. Unfortunately, it is impossible to separate this group from the other groups in the ETS files. It would be interesting to know what scores an individual graduate school might recommend as entrance requirements, and then as degree requirements.

7. It would be interesting to administer the MLA Proficiency Tests to graduate students enrolled in MAT Programs upon entrance and then upon graduation. As in the NDEA Institutes, the tests would then serve not only to evaluate the student but also the programs concerned.

8. A further project might be to administer the tests at individual institutions to both the MAT students and those enrolled in the regular MA program. These statistics would give us insight into the differences and similarities in these two type of graduate programs.

9. The MLA Proficiency Tests have been administered to natives but again unfortunately these statistics cannot be culled at ETS from those of other groups.

10. Administering the higher level Coop Reading Test, the Proficiency Reading Test and the Graduate Reading Test to the same group would give us some vital comparative scores. We would then be in a position to recommend these tests to the proper groups.

Not only do we need more statistics and comparative scores for different tests, but in many areas we need more test development. Teachers of languages other than French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish are clamoring for tests, especially teachers of Chinese and Portuguese.

Form C of the Proficiency Tests, modeled on Forms A and B, has been constructed and will be administered to the NDEA participants this summer. Form C will be ready for general use by the beginning of 1966. Forms D, E and F will soon follow. Should the profession desire major changes in the structure of a given test or in the battery, Form D will give us our first opportunity to institute radical changes.

National Testing Centers might administer the Proficiency Tests in the future—for example, on a given Friday afternoon and Saturday, three times a year, at designated centers. Institutions with the NDEA Institutes and those participating in the Carroll project might provide a nucleus of such centers. Perhaps future NDEA Institutes might avail themselves of this opportunity so that the directors would have the applicants' test scores before the final selection is made. How far are we from a testing program such as that operated by the College Boards?

A kit with brochures, tapes, film strips is contemplated for the describing, the administering and scoring of the Cooperative Tests. Should another be developed for the Proficiency Tests?

the tests and our profession

Let me conclude with a word of caution. Any test as a measuring device is only as good as those who make up the test, those who administer it, those who score it, and those who interpret the results. These tests are your tests. Your colleagues constructed them, administer them, score them and interpret the results. Your cooperation and constructive criticism are vital to continuing success in this field. A sound testing program will go a long way in bringing about the articulation from FLES through the Ph.D. that you and I have been dreaming about.

The MLA Tests represent, however, only one type of evaluation. They must continue to be one criterion of as many criteria as can contribute to the total picture of the student or teacher being evaluated. No battery of tests should or will qualify a student for classroom teaching.

Our tests are better today than ever before. They'll be better in the future. As a classroom teacher of German, I have the pleasure of reading Goethe's *Faust* with my students upon occasion. Faust's salvation lies in his constant striving and in his dedication to the service of mankind. So it is with our profession and with its testing arm. We must strive constantly to improve our testing program—in the dedication of our profession to the service of mankind.

overview

richard fowler
cleveland junior high school
spartanburg, s.c.

The first Southern Conference on Language Teaching, held February 4-6, 1965, at the Americana Motor Hotel in Atlanta, Georgia, attracted well over 1200 persons, teachers and administrators from the elementary, high school, and college levels, members of the United States Office of Education and of various state departments of education. The Conference was designed to "focus attention on improving foreign language instruction in the schools and colleges of the South through the use of improved teaching methods, techniques, and materials," illustrated by lectures, work-study sessions at varying levels, demonstration classes, instructional films, and exhibits of electronic audio-visual equipment.

FIRST GENERAL SESSION, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 4

Louis Chatagnier, Emory University, *Conference Chairman*, presiding;

Phillip Leamon, Coordinator for School Foreign Languages at Indiana University, speaker.

I. SOME NEW CHALLENGES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES[1]

A. Present Needs in Foreign Language Teaching:

1. Need for organization and coordination of efforts among language teachers. Teachers (on all levels) should unify their efforts and agree on their goals in order to establish the vital close liaison between high school and college programs. A state coordinator of instruction should assume leadership and should promote workshops, conferences, and committees on the state level.

Note: The following report represents an overview of the total conference, including a summary of the articles found in the preceding pages and of lectures given by Dean Axelrod, Dr. Twaddell and Dr. Spillane which do not appear in this publication.

[1] The text of this address appears on Page 18.

2. Need for longer and stronger uninterrupted sequences in foreign language instruction, and for more attention to proper placement in the sequence from level to level.
3. Need for an organized, all-out attack on the weaknesses of existing pro-programs. Foreign language teaching is no longer considered of secondary importance. National attention and support have put the means of accomplishing our goals within our grasp. It is our responsibility as teachers to express our desires and use our abilities to impove our programs.

B. Conclusions: What are some of the future possibilities for action to meet the challenge that now exists in foreign language teaching?

1. Raise the standards for qualifications of teachers in the field.
2. Encourage teachers to make greater efforts in preparing materials, to attend professional meetings and conferences, and to record their ideas in professional journals.
3. Encourage students to become foreign language teachers themselves. They are the best prospects for the future.

II. "Language Teaching at the Air Force Academy"

A film presented by Major Arthur C. Voudouris, USAF.

The film "Language Teaching at the Air Force Academy" was designed to acquaint the public with the foreign language program at the Air Force Academy. In general, language courses are organized into four stages:

1. Introductory Stage: The cadet is introduced to the basic speech patterns of the language, provided with great opportunity for repetition, drilled on simple points of interference in speech habits and intonation, and taught simple expressions in the language.
2. Development stage: The student moves into a more complex learning level, learning structural habits and techniques of more complicated speech habit formation.
3. Application stage: Morphological acquisitions are expanded into meaningful composition.
4. Enrichment stage: Opportunities are provided to enhance the student's ability in foreign language through approximation of near-native situations, and finally to visit the native country itself whenever possible.

Emphasis at the Air Force Academy is on learning language as a means of communication and of promoting understanding between nations. Individual performance is demanded and provided for extensively. Electronic equipment and visual aids play an important role, and classes are always kept small. Instructors plan programs and engage in conferences which include all language teachers, where problems of procedure, methodology, and articulation are discussed, and they are required to participate in in-service training.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION, FRIDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY 5

PHASE I: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: EXTENDED SEQUENCE—

Genevieve Blew, Secretary of the National Education Association, Division of Foreign Languages, presiding

A. FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS[2]

Charles Parnell, *University of Notre Dame*

The basic theory of the FLES program is that seven to ten years are needed in a continuous sequence in order to achieve proficiency in the language, with basic competency being achieved by the end of high school so that specialization might follow on the college level. In such a program, articulation and cooperation at various levels is of the utmost importance, and FLES must be thought of as an integral part of a longer sequence, not as a separate program. The place to start is no longer guesswork: facts now show us that the optimum moment for language learning is in the elementary school, since at the age of six the average child is secure in the basic structures of his own language. The ear dominates the eye as a tool in learning at this age, and the FLES program must take this into account.

Good teachers are not enough in the FLES program; *a sequence is essential.* The third grade seems to be the best time to begin such a program, and in the beginning it should include all elementary pupils of the level, with later screening; it should never be a one-year adventure followed by a long blank. Elements of basic sound patterns and structure along with cultural familiarization should be acquired at this age; as the sequence progresses, the gifted can be moved into more accelerated programs, while others are retained in remedial sections or dropped according to performance. There seems at present little justification in the introduction of the so-called "exotic" languages at the elementary level.

Who is to teach? The importance of employing teachers on the elementary level who have competency not only in the language itself, but in the theories and techniques of language teaching is more generally admitted now than in the past; this rules out the untrained native teacher or the regular classroom teacher who happens to have had a few courses of the language in college. Educational TV at this level should be carefully scrutinized, as the value of such devices is often exaggerated by the gadgetry and face validity involved. Course content should be scheduled according to principles of language teaching, not in a haphazard or drenching way, and continuity must be insured. Teachers need to feel the freedom of movement within their part of the program, but materials need to be given careful consideration before selection is made by persons who understand all phases of the program. Such materials *are* now available. Constant evaluation must be made as to methodology, philosophy, transitions, and overall effectiveness. The necessity of planning and supervision must be recognized, and a supervisor or coordinator must set a trend of no improvising and no compromising with these principles or THE RESULTS MAY BE WORSE THAN IF THERE WERE NO PROGRAM AT ALL on this level.

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[2] The text of this address appears on Page 46.

B. FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS[3]

Clemens Hallmann, *Pennsylvania State University*

The ultimate goal for language teaching on the secondary school level is generally accepted as language for communication, and secondary level teachers should ideally stress use of the language in the classroom. More specifically, the immediate goals are:

1. Understanding the language at normal tempo;
2. Speaking directly on a normal conversational level;
3. Reading with direct understanding all but scientific material;
4. Writing without conscious reference to English.

Secondary school teachers should have the following qualifications:

1. Sound knowledge of their subject matter;
2. Understanding of the nature of language: phonology, morphology, and syntax;
3. Technical understanding of means of teaching all skills;
4. Knowledge of technological aids and their values;
5. Understanding of evaluation procedures;
6. Willingness to belong to and participate in professional associations.

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[3] The text of this address appears on Page 54.

What experiences should be available to the student?

1. Constant opportunities to speak and practice;
2. Exercises in listening comprehension of native speech;
3. Drills to acquire new structures and sounds as *habit;*
4. Development of the ability to transfer skills to the production of new NON-CUED materials;
5. Explanation of the use of specific drills;
6. Model responses to correct his mistakes;
7. Instruction in the target language without bolstering in English (usually FALSE SECURITY to both teacher and student);
8. Perfection of stress, intonation and juncture;
9. Presentation of vocabulary in CONTEXT, NOT AS ISOLATED ITEMS IN LISTS;
10. Presentation of culture as an integral part of the program, not as a separate course or unit of study;
11. Availability of carefully selected laboratory materials.

Teaching of various skills (on the first and second level of a secondary program):

1. Listening skills: Should be developed by the presentation of accurate native models before student attempts at repetition.
2. Speaking skills: Should be encouraged by constant repetition, but always after the native model. Transposition should follow from repetition into genuine comprehension, natural speech.
3. Reading skills: Should be limited to recognition of pre-learned oral material, ever-expanding.
4. Writing skills: Should be presented after reading has been done, not before.
5. Grammar: Should be descriptive, not prescriptive.
6. Evaluation (Testing): Should evaluate listening comprehension, sound discrimination and content production.

C. COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

Joseph Axelrod, *California State University,* Palos Verdes (Calif.)

The period of 1959-1999 is the new era of language teaching on all levels. It is just recently that professional members of higher education have realized that colleges did not meet their goals in language teaching in the period gone by, and the new era has brought about a new and inspiring relationship between colleges and secondary schools. The walls of resistance are being torn down and staff members of all levels are more soberly looking at themselves to see how they may cooperate and improve aspects of their own programs rather than blaming the faults and weaknesses of their students on the level immediately preceding. More and more college people are visiting high schools and attempting to understand their problems, and colleges are making more efforts to unify their own programs, answering cries of *"But we must have diversity"* with *"Diversity is fine, but chaos is intolerable."*

A committee on articulation study of colleges in California made the following recommendations for specific problems that were existent in that state:

1. How should the high school work of entering freshmen be evaluated?
   A normal continuum should be set up making use of determined objectives, and colleges should become a part of the same sequence in language learning. The audio-lingual approach is no longer an approach but a set of principles.
2. What is lower division study and what is upper division study? How should junior colleges limit themselves or extend their offerings so as not to encroach on or injure senior college work that follows?
   The junior college must be prepared to base its program on the needs of the students it receives and to offer them the courses of study that they need in a normal sequence pattern.
3. What procedures should be adopted in the matter of test policy and placement test policy?
   Uniformity and the increasing use of recognized standardized tests with national norms should be aspired to, along with more pressure for the production of such tests.
4. What about language teacher education?
   Put an end to the emphasis on literature courses to prospective language teachers and offer more and more courses in techniques and linguistics.

PHASE II OF THE SECOND GENERAL SESSION: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

Oscar Haac, *Emory University*, presiding:

A. LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

Freeman Twaddell, *Brown University*

The fundamental contributions of linguistics to language teaching are in two general areas:

the area of expression, which includes both the machinery and the code of expression and which is almost entirely unconscious;

the *area of content,* which is the message of language as a means of communication.

On the *elementary level,* habit formation is the primary function of language learning. Our problem is to keep our content items at a minimum at this level, as too much content is wasteful and confusing to the student. He should not be advanced too quickly through the four skills; the structures used should be carefully restricted, and reading material might be completely eliminated.

On the *intermediate level,* a practical approach could well be paralleled with a theoretical study of grammar. One of our most pressing problems in this area is the matter of vocabulary. The elements of a vocabulary system are different from those of a pronunciation system, where habits can be produced by over-learning, and comprise an exact science; vocabulary learning as a science only partially exists, and it is a general and infinite process. There are closed lists in vocabulary systems that can be memorized and learned, such as pronouns and prepositions, but content words are open list items; the over-learning of vocabulary is thus impossible. Furthermore, vocabulary is arbitrary as well as infinite. Words do not actually have meanings, people have meaning for words; different people have different meanings for words, and words have differing meanings in different contexts (the phenomenon of "polysemia").

People do not acquire all at once the many different meanings for words. Vocabulary expansion on the high school level takes place primarily through reading, as there does exist a maximum or optimum auditory level—*i.e.,* a fundamental vocabulary exists. In addition, our vocabulary expands constantly through sensible guessing and tolerable vagueness.

How, then, can we guide our students toward addition of further content items? We must stop our concern for teaching extensive vocabulary lists. In one study, the 300th most frequent item of vocabulary occurred only once among 1600; the 600th most frequent occurred only once in 54,000 times. There is a definite frequency distribution of words in a given set in language, and it is significant that 45% to 49% of the forms and 30% of the roots or stems in a given text occur only once. As it follows that, in reality, it is impossible to give the student adequate vocabulary resources, let's give him the skills, and let the vocabulary expansion come through his own work.

In our teaching, we will do well to impart the minimal usefulness of items based on a distribution list and to correct quickly bad vocabulary habits; we should not, for example, teach a one-to-one ratio of foreign language to

English, and every attempt should be made to discard tests which hold students to this *non-existent* ratio. Students need to learn enough about the foreign language to expand it like their own: through intelligent guessing.

Finally, in addition to structure and vocabulary, we as teachers should emphasize style, gradually and within the sequence of the program. The major stylistic levels are (in descending order):

	Oral	*Written*
1.	Oratorical	Poetic or polished
2.	Public speaking	Expository prose
3.	Consultative or informative	Business correspondence
4.	Casual-social conversation	Friendly letter
5.	Intimate or slang	Usually unwritten

A. LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT DRILLS[4]

Karl Pond, *Florida State University*

The two trends of thought in reinforcement of behavior in language have been (1) the structural approach, with emphasis on points of interference; and (2) the situation approach, which attempts to provide habit formation through approximation of natural, native-like situations. Probably language learning in the classroom can never be a completely natural process because, after all, the classroom is an artificial place in itself.

In general, drills are of two main types: *learning drills,* which develop a special set habit, and *testing drills,* which seek to verify the acquisition of the set or point as a habit. The drill proceeds through the phases of stimulus-analogy-minimal change; learning then takes place by transformation through substitution. Teachers too often stop on a certain point when they recognize that the student understands what is being taught. This is not enough; the student must be able to perform the task, following the desired pattern in a variety of possible situations. This will not only render the drill more valid, but will present more challenge and less boredom. Learning takes place by total analogy from one frame of the drill to another, but testing requires the student to apply the principle by immediate recall.

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[4] The text of this address appears on Page 30.

Principles for use of pattern drills:

1. The student must be aware of the nature and purpose of the exercise.

2. A standard of performance must be maintained and insisted upon as to the speed and correctness of the responses.

3. A testing drill should be at least half as long as a learning drill.

4. Preparation before drills is essential and important. The drill should follow the pattern of stimulus-response-correction.

The student must be rewarded for his correctness and he must be conditioned to care that his response is correct. Sound and frequent testing drills should take place to aid the teacher in determining areas of weakness and how to pace the class or student.

C. ELECTRONIC CLASSROOM[5]

Joseph Hutchinson, Defense Language Institute Program, Washington, D.C.

The most important point to remember about language laboratories is that they can amplify *any* program, which means that they can amplify an inferior program as well as a superior one. Merely having language equipment is, of course, not enough; there must be teachers who are interested and willing enough to get the maximum use and benefit from the equipment.

Elements of a successful laboratory program:

1. *Teacher:* In-service programs should be available for teachers involved.

2. *Teaching Materials:* Selection of materials should be delegated to persons who understand and accept modern theories of language teaching, and every person involved in selection of materials should know and have at hand the criteria for selection.

3. *Testing:* The lab test should enable the teacher to get a good sample of the individual's own performance.

4. *Practice Sessions:* Practice sessions should provide essential reinforcement to learning situations; they are of dubious value if they are neither frequent nor sufficiently long.

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[5] The text of this address appears on Page 36.

5. *Equipment:* Reliable types of equipment should be used.

Predictions for the immediate future:

Simplified electronic classrooms will materialize and become a part of school plant planning.

Remote control programming of materials under teacher supervision will become possible.

Methods will be developed to make possible the retention of acoustical images through patterns.

More and better films for cultural dissemination will be produced.

PHASE III: FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: TESTING AND EVALUATION

Benjamin Hudson, *Atlanta University*, presiding:

A. TESTING IN THE CLASSROOM[6]

Robert Lado, *Georgetown University*

The most important result of any teaching is the amount and quality of education which has taken place; today's comprehensive language programs require more effective learning-evaluation procedures than did the grammar-translation programs of the past, whose tests were based on the memorization of rules and vocabulary lists. It is now accepted that the translation method does not test the ability to perform the act of language as a means of communication.

Grammatical analysis is equally invalid, as the use of language is not correlative to the ability to make grammatical analysis.

The main trouble with tests today is that they are too *general* and test on the merit of "face" validity only. Attempts at evaluating the skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing are often given too much weight, for success cannot be measured by the ability to perform one of these skills at a given moment. To get a student to speak briefly is an inadequate evaluation of oral performance both because it will be non-typical and because the scoring of oral responses to questions is highly subjective. Written composition tests are also inadequate measures of a student's worth—though many teachers have historically felt the ability to write about a subject to be the most reliable expression of knowledge—and a common standard for grading essay material is in essence, almost impossible. In evaluating sound discrimination, a minimal pairs test would be appropriate. Tests of auditory comprehension have been included in the college boards and other batteries, but these also lack consistent validity because they do not always test on points of real discrimination or on minimal exercises.

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[6] The text of this address appears on Page 59.

Language is the association of form and meaning in communication and tests should be patterned according to this objective. In learning language, students should listen and acquire habits in a global context, but their difficulties should be pinpointed and tested separately—i.e., we must decide what we wish to test and test *only* that, and the student must be led to responses which can be validly evaluated.

Research is now being done on a future test which may be both abstract and effective, though not appearing to have "face" validity; perhaps someone will even develop pencil and paper tests that will measure speaking.

B. MLA FOREIGN LANGUAGE TESTS[7]

Joseph Astman, *Hofstra University*

The MLA serves language teachers by acting as a clearing-house for dissemination of information on testing. The Rockefeller Foundation supported Phase I of MLA, 1952-1958, which saw the publication of *National Interest in Foreign Languages* and the listing of the Statement of Qualifications for Teachers of Foreign Languages. The National Defense Education Act took over support of Phase II, which developed the MLA proficiency tests to measure the progress of participants in the NDEA institutes. Present norms and scores are based on the results of past participants.

One of the most serious problems in setting up measuring devices is the number of variables which enter into the evaluation of an advanced student. The proficiency tests are now being used in three ways:

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[7] The text of this address appears on Page 66.

1. In NDEA institutes to evaluate the institute itself and the progress of its participants and to provide statistics for national norms;

2. for certification purposes;

3. in colleges and universities to measure the proficiency of language majors, graduate school candidates, and teaching assistants, and to provide measurement in FL research projects.

The MLA Cooperative tests are designed for students in the 7th to 14th years of schooling and concentrate on the four skills. There are two forms: the L level for students with two years of high school FL, and the M level for students with four years of high school and/or two years in college.

Problems now under consideration are the need for guides in testing native teachers in foreign languages and for appropriate tests for Master of Arts in Teaching candidates in FL programs. Future MLA projects include testing approximately one-half of the nation's language majors in search of more vital statistics.

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Friday evening the Conference banquet was held in the ballroom of the Americana Motor Hotel. Herman Bostick, of the Georgia State Department of Education and Secretary of the Conference, presided. Dr. Sanford Atwood, president, Emory University, gave the welcome address. Dr. Nelson Brooks, of Yale University, was the keynote speaker.

LANGUAGE TEACHING: CONCEPTS, PROBLEMS, OPPORTUNITIES[8]

The overall purpose of language teaching is to put the student in control or command of a second language. Language teaching is now considered urgent and profound, and is characterized by many new aspects dominated by a new understanding of what language is and how it works. There are new objectives, new concepts, new materials, new technological aids, new techniques of classroom procedure, and we ourselves, as language teachers, have a sense of a new importance in this evolving scheme.

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[8] The text of this address appears on Page 1.

New objectives have arisen and evolved drastically from the old objective of learning to read another language. Nowadays, because the world itself has changed, we seek competence in the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and the development of cultural and literary insight. The role of the use of the mother tongue has diminished, the process of translation is being antiquated, and analysis of structures on a formal basis is becoming minute.

The idea of communication is expanded into being not only a face to face relationship, but also one of writer to reader, and artist to audience. Educational theorists are evolving different concepts in the establishment of levels as opposed to years or semesters with regard to language teaching. As a suggestion of this concept, *level one* might be devoted to a basic introductory course of familiarization, *level two* devoted primarily to the development of language competence, and *level three* to literary competence. The concept of culture, as distinct from civilization, is also changing and taking on added significance. There are in reality two types of culture associated with any people: "formal" culture, representing the artistic endeavors of that people, and "deep" culture, representing the characteristic thoughts, actions, mannerisms, beliefs, and concerns of the individuals, and the day-by-day details of their lives.

Meaning and semantics have far-reaching depths. A single word, with its many possible facets is only potentially meaningful, for words are only good to us as parts of utterances. As words become terms in propositions, their potential meaning is greatly increased, and the symbolism behind utterances may cause reactions of varying natures.

What is urgent about language teaching? The so-called "national emergency," which has rendered our field critical, has brought us nationwide attention and support, and we are now under pressure to produce gratifying results, and college entrance examinations are being stiffened each year.

The language symbol system is the vehicle for great ideas and the fine arts, but, like the mathematics symbol system, it is a process of mental skill which must be learned. We as teachers need to know the relationship of the skills of language learning and the most effective order in which to present them; here the help of the language scientists, the descriptive linguists, is invaluable.

The language system is also a multi-disciplined process including two opposing schools or disciplines: the humanities—philosophy, philology, and literature; and the sciences—psychology, linguistics, and cultural anthropology. In our teaching we must clearly recognize the differences as well as the relationships between the two disciplines.

What are some of the misconceptions that we must overcome if we are to become effective in our teaching?

1. that language is vocabulary
2. that language is what is written in books
3. that the unit of language is the word
4. that understanding in a language means the ability to restate in the mother tongue.

The skills involved in language learning are separate entities, and should be treated as such. In the teaching of writing, the logical progression is from the sub-sentence to the sentence to the paragraph, and the sentence, as the norm of written speech, is often not given enough attention. Audio-lingual preparation before writing is highly desirable for the development of sentence structure as well as elliptical responses, and possibilities for the use of transformational grammar are plentiful in this area.

Dr. Brooks concluded his talk with twenty-five suggestions for language teachers.

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 6

FROM THEORY TO PRACTICE

The Conference resumed with demonstration classes and orientation films presented in the following teaching programs:

Ecouter et Parler
James O'Neil
Holt, Rinehart, Winston

Audio-Lingual Material
A-L-M Spanish
Alice Arana
Harcourt, Brace and World

Learning French the Modern Way
Randall Marshall
McGraw-Hill and Company

Je Parle Francais
Encyclopaedia Britannica Films
Louis Heckle
Atlanta Schools

A-L-M Russian
Billie Davis
Atlanta Schools

Parlons Francais
Heath-de Rochemont
Anne Slack
Modern Language Project

Fiesta
Yvonne de Wright
Georgia State Department of Education

DISCUSSION SESSIONS

Mrs. Jeanne Palyok, of Dreher High School in Columbia, South Carolina, led the *Voix et Images de France* discussion group.

This set of materials was a direct outgrowth of *Francais Fondamental,* a project developed by the CREDIF of Saint-Cloud under the direction of the French Ministry of Education. The study resulted in the choosing of the most basic and useful French words and expressions from frequency lists based on actual and extensive samplings from almost every single phase of French life; course materials were then set up to give foreigners a practical command of the spoken language. The course consists of taped lessons accompanied by filmstrips, placing great emphasis on French culture and everyday life. Within the presentation-explanation-repetition-transformation format of each lesson, grammar is presented globally in the context of the situation, but the use of drills is also recognized.

Dr. Edward T. Ladd, Emory University, presided a discussion group, "Teaching Foreign Languages and the School Administrator." Mrs. Andrea McHenry-Mildenberger explained the role of the NDEA Title III Financial Assistance Program and its implications for school systems. Clemens Hallmann spoke about the role of the foreign language coordinator and Joseph Hutchinson set for school administrators guidelines to the purchase of electronic teaching equipment.

Dr. Charles Lester, Dean of the Graduate School at Emory University, presided over another discussion group, *"Promoting Foreign Language Research and Study in Higher Education."* Panelists were *James Spillane,* of the U.S. Office of Education, *Joseph Axelrod,* California State College, and *Joseph Astman,* of Hofstra University.

Major points under discussion were the MA and BA degree requirements and the need for foreign language research. The Master's degree program is considered the most uneven of those offered in the United States. One recommendation for improvement is the system currently in force in California, which requires a fifth year of training with any academic degree. For the BA degree in the humanities, a comprehensive examination in subject matter as well as a performance examination in the major field has been recommended.

Research in the areas of learning and teaching, particularly in learning processes and testing, is sorely needed; such research should be credited toward the academic promotion of the person doing it, and available government and foundation grants should be investigated.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION

Sanford Newell, *Converse College*, presiding:

I. THE NDEA LANGUAGE INSTITUTE PROGRAM

James Spillane, United States Office of Education

The NDEA Institute Program was launched in 1959 with 12 institutes and a budget of $1,200,000. In 1965, there will be a total of 496 institutes with a total budget of over $32,000,000. More than 20,000 teachers have attended these institutes, whose primary purposes have been to provide exhaustive language practice, cultural enhancement, and knowledge of linguistic techniques.

In October, 1964, the NDEA program entered a new phase as Title VI was changed to Title XI, including appropriations for other programs including English as a foreign language, history, geography, and training for the teaching of disadvantaged youth. As the languages are no longer covered by a fixed appropriation, they must merit their share by proof of quality programs, and FL institutes have set a precedent for successfully meeting the challenge.

Several areas under consideration for future development are:

1. the need for imaginative ideas to solidify FLES programs
2. the increase of the study of exotic languages
3. the ways and means of increasing the number and qualifications of foreign language teachers
4. the addition of more overseas institutes (domestic institutes will probably be decreased.)
5. the expansion of experimentation and research into new types of programs

II. *Successful Use of the Language Laboratory*

A film presented by Robert Cannaday, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction

It is a safe estimate that two-thirds of our language teachers are presently untrained in the use of language laboratories. One of the current results of this incompetency is the failure of many laboratory programs. The following cycle is typical: Innovations are adopted and a laboratory is installed; the laboratory system is adapted to the old-fashioned teaching methods and practices; the results are evaluated and are naturally disheartening; and the system is consequently dropped at great expense. If selection of materials is not made on a sound basis by competent personnel who understand the principles of language teaching, and if the entire program is not revamped and well-planned, the outcome may be disastrous instead of beneficial.

In a successful laboratory program, certain conditions must exist:

1. The laboratory should be a means for providing individual language practice and for group testing, but should not be considered a teaching device in toto.

2. The materials used in the laboratory should be correlated with other classroom materials.

3. The foreign language teachers must be involved when selections of materials are made.

4. The laboratory instructors must be competent, qualified language instructors.

The Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction has developed a series of films demonstrating the use of language laboratory equipment which might be useful to administrators, curriculum planners, or for teacher workshop sessions.

The first Southern Conference on Language Teaching proved one thing conclusively—that language teachers are excited by the modern techniques and new attitudes in the field, encouraged by the nationwide recognition and support of their efforts, and interested in personal participation in meeting the challenge of foreign language teaching. Enthusiasm was the hallmark of the conference, and teachers could constantly be seen examining exhibits and demonstrations of new materials, collecting circulars and catalogues, and questioning consultants. If the spirit of these teachers reflects even a fraction of a new foreign language movement in the South, the conference may indeed be considered a success and the forerunner of many more to come.

Thursday, February 4

Registration
Mezzanine Floor
4:00 to 9:00 P.M.

First General Session

Convention Hall, Main Floor
7:00 P.M.

Presiding: LOUIS J. CHATAGNIER, *Emory University, Conference Chairman*
Speaker: M. PHILLIP LEAMON, *Coordinator for School Foreign Languages Indiana University*
"A New Challenge in Foreign Language Teaching"

Announcements

Friday, February 5

Registration
Mezzanine Floor
8:00-12:00 Noon; 2:00 to 5 P.M.

Second General Session

Convention Hall, Main Floor
9:00-10:30 A.M.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: EXTENDED SEQUENCE

Presiding: GENEVIEVE S. BLEW, *Secretary, National Education Association Division of Foreign Languages*
"FLES"—CHARLES E. PARNELL, *University of Notre Dame*
"Secondary School"—CLEMENS HALLMANN, *Pennsylvania State University*
"College and University"—JOSEPH AXELROD, *California State University*

11:00-12:30 P.M.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

Presiding: OSCAR A. HAAC, *Emory University*
"Language and Linguistics"—W. FREEMAN TWADDELL, *Brown University*
"Language Re-enforcement Drills"—KARL POND, *Florida State University*
"Electronic Classroom"—JOSEPH HUTCHINSON, *Defense Language Institute*

LUNCH

2:00-3:30 P.M.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: TESTING AND EVALUATION

Presiding: BENJAMIN F. HUDSON, *Atlanta University*
"Testing in the Classroom"—ROBERT LADO, *Georgetown University*
"MLA Foreign Language Tests"—JOSEPH G. ASTMAN, *Hofstra University*

Work Study Sessions

4:00-5:30 P.M.

GROUP I

Decatur Room

TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Presiding: Juanita Abernathy, *Georgia State Department of Education*
Consultants: Charles E. Parnell
Anne Slack, *Modern Language Project, Boston*
Yvonne de Wright, *Georgia State Department of Education*

GROUP II

Brunswick Room

TEACHING FRENCH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Presiding: Elizabeth Epting, *Converse College*
Consultants: Joseph Hutchinson
Genevieve S. Blew
Phillip Leamon

GROUP III

Convention Hall "A"

TEACHING SPANISH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Presiding: Gail Hutchinson, *Atlanta Board of Education*
Consultants: Clemens Hallmann
Robert Lado
Andrea McHenry-Mildenberger, *U.S. Office of Education*
Nidia Herrera, *Georgia State Department of Education*

GROUP IV

Columbus Room

TEACHING GERMAN AND RUSSIAN IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Presiding: Billie Davis, *Atlanta Board of Education*
Consultants: W. Freeman Twaddell
Joseph Astman

GROUP V

Convention Hall "B"

TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE COLLEGE

Presiding: S. C. Mangaifico, *Woman's College of Georgia*
Consultants: Sanford Newell
Benjamin Hudson
Joseph Axelrod
Huguette Chatagnier, *Emory University*

Executive Committee Meeting

6:15-7:00 P.M.

Capital Suite A

Members of the Steering and Advisory Committees are requested to attend this meeting. Guest speakers and consultants are invited to meet with the Committees.

Banquet

7:30 P.M.

Ballroom A

Presiding: HERMAN F. BOSTICK, *Georgia State Department of Education*

Invocation

Presentation of Guests

Music..LUTHER STRIPLING, *Hamilton High School*
Avondale Estates

Dinner

Address..NELSON BROOKS, *Yale University*

Instructional Films

9:00-9:30 P.M.

Columbus Room

"Successful Use of the Language Laboratory"—ROBERT W. CANNADAY,
Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction

Saturday, February 6

9:00-12:00 Noon

DEMONSTRATION OF TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

(A series of demonstrations with a variety of course materials and teaching aids by master teachers working with students from the local schools.)

Demonstrations Classes

Saturday, February 6

9:00-12:00 Noon

Visitors are encouraged to attend various demonstration classes and withhold their questions and comments until the following QUESTION-ANSWER sessions scheduled from 11:00 to 12:00.

9:00-10:00—Level I

French—Ecouter et Parler—*Convention Hall "B"*
JAMES O'NEIL

French—Voix et Images de France (Films)—*Eastman Room*
CREDIF

Spanish—Audio-Lingual Material (ALM)—*Convention Hall "A"*
ALICE ARANA

Russian—Audio-Lingual Material (ALM)—*Decatur Room*
BILLIE DAVIS

9:30-10:30—FLES—*French*—Parlons Francais—*Brunswick Room*
ANNE SLACK

9:30-10:30—Level II

Russian—Audio-Lingual Material (ALM)—*Decatur Room*
BILLIE DAVIS

10:00-11:00—Level II

Spanish—Learning Spanish the Modern Way—*Convention Hall "A"*
RANDALL MARSHALL

French—Je Parle Francais—*Columbus Room*
LOUIS HECKLE

Spanish—Fiesta—*Convention Hall "B"*
YVONNE DE WRIGHT—FLES

Question-Answer Sessions

11:00-12:00 Noon

Comments and questions concerning materials and techniques used in the demonstration classes. Please note carefully the exact room for each session.

1. FLES-French—**ANNE SLACK**—*Decatur Room*
2. FLES-Spanish—**YVONNE DE WRIGHT**—*Convention Hall "B"*
3. Secondary Level—**HERMAN BOSTICK** *Presiding*

ALICE ARANA	**JAMES O'NEIL**
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LOUIS HECKLE	

Discussion Sessions

GROUP I

10:00-12:00 Noon

Eastman Room

TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

Presiding: Edward T. Ladd, *Emory University*

NDEA, Title III, Financial Assistance to the Foreign Language Program
Andrea McHenry-Mildenberger, *U.S. Office of Education*

The Role of the State Foreign Language Coordinator
Clemens Hallmann, *Pennsylvania State University*

Guidelines to the Purchase of Electronic Teaching Equipment
Joseph Hutchinson, *Defense Language Institute*

GROUP II

10:00-12:00 Noon

Penthouse, Eighth Floor

PROMOTING FOREIGN LANGUAGE RESEARCH AND STUDY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Presiding: Charles T. Lester, *Dean of the Graduate School, Emory University*

Panelists: James Spillane, *U.S. Office of Education*
Joseph Axelrod, *California State College*
Joseph Astman, *Hofstra University*

Third General Session

12:00-1:00 P.M.

Convention Hall

THE NDEA LANGUAGE INSTITUTE PROGRAM

Presiding: Sanford Newell

Speaker: James Spillane, *U.S. Office of Education*

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